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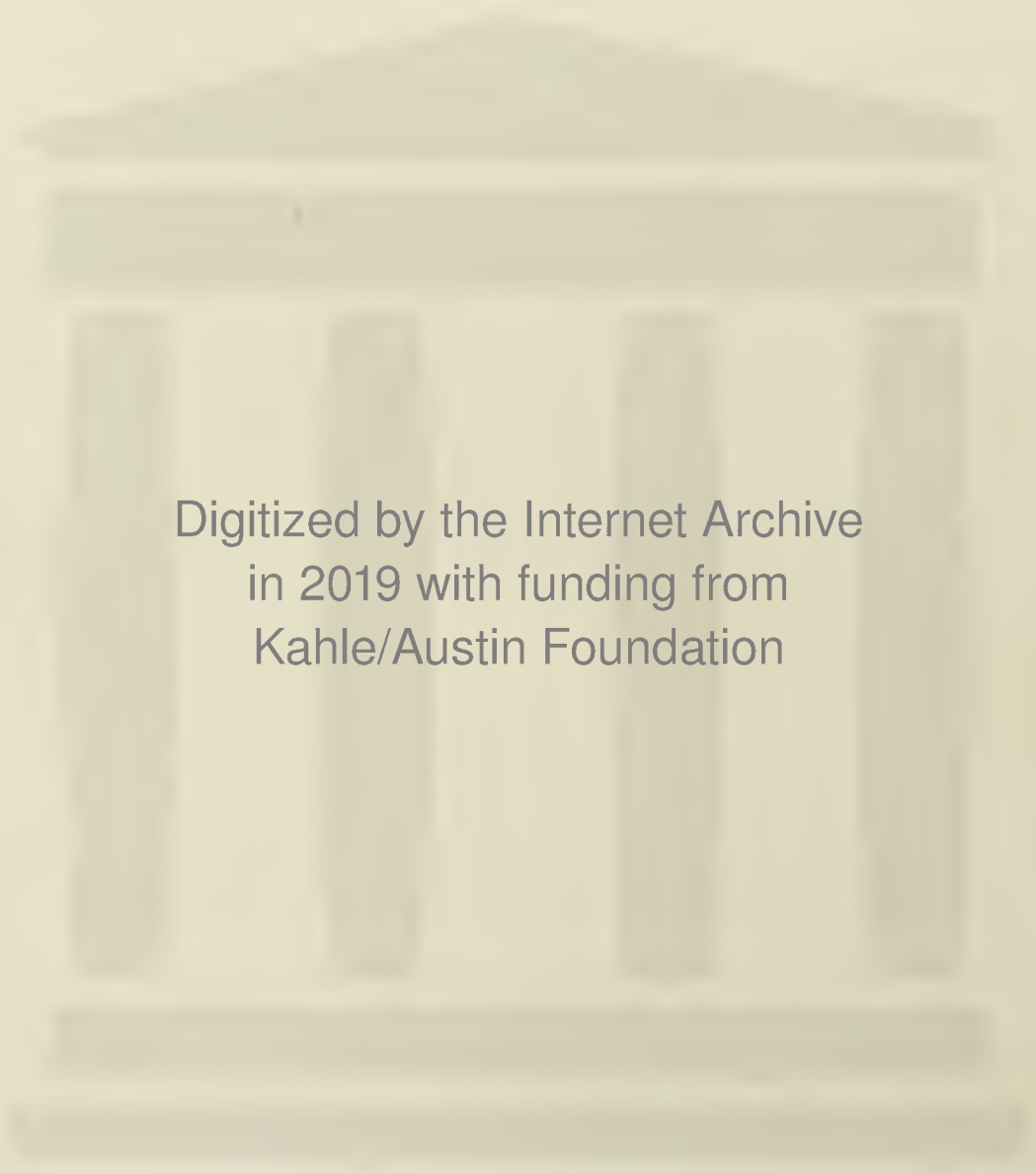


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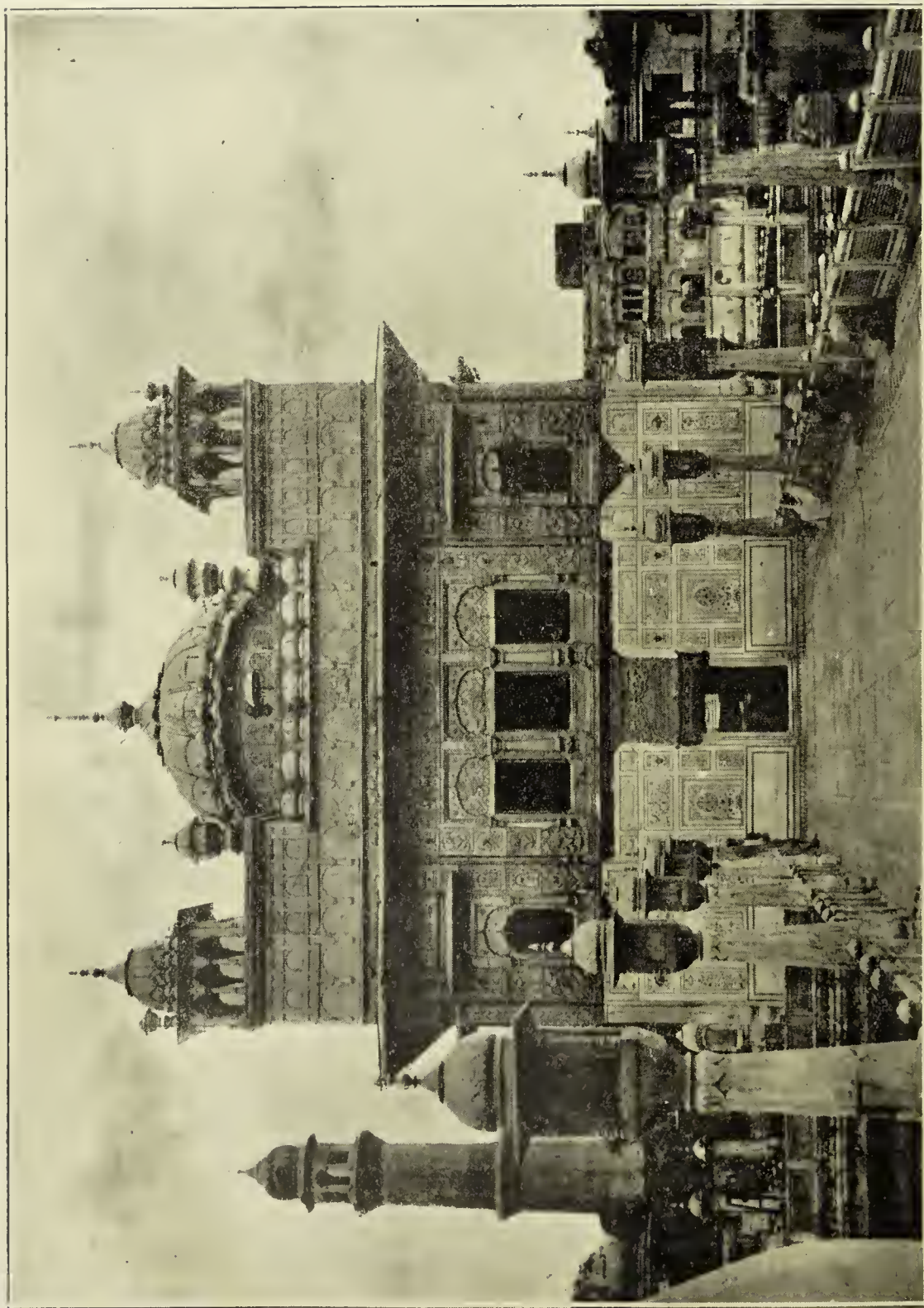
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GOLDEN TEMPLE, AMRITSAR, INDIA

THE
ENCYCLOPEDIA
OF THE
BRITISH EMPIRE

THE FIRST ENCYCLOPEDIC RECORD
OF THE GREATEST EMPIRE IN
THE HISTORY OF THE WORLD

EDITED BY
CHARLES W. DOMVILLE-FIFE

Illustrated with 2000 Photographs and Maps

VOL. III.

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THE ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

CONTENTS OF VOLUME III.

THE EAST.

	PAGE
The East : British Interests in the Far and Middle East	853

EDUCATION.

Education	856
Great Britain	859
Northern Ireland	861
Irish Free State	861
Australia	861
Canada	865
Libraries	869
The Union of South Africa	870
New Zealand	873
India	874
Rhodesia, Southern	875
Newfoundland	878
Education in the Crown Colonies	878

EGYPT AND THE BRITISH SUDAN.

	PAGE
Egypt and the British Sudan	882
The Land of the Pharaohs	883
England in Egypt	883
The Arabi Revolt	892
The Regeneration of Egypt	898
The Capitulations	902
Mixed Tribunals	912
British Influence in Egypt	913
The Loss of the Sudan	914
Gordon at Khartoum	916
The Relief Expedition	920
The Abandonment of the Sudan	920
Dervish Invasion of Egypt	922
The Reconquest of the Sudan	923
The Financial Difficulty	924
The Final Advance on Khartoum	925
Establishment of the British Sudan	927
The Renaissance of Egypt	930
The Railways	932

GOVERNMENT.

	PAGE
Government	1023
Government of the Empire	1023
H.M. The King	1024
The Privy Council	1024
The Parliament of Great Britain	1025
The Ministry	1025
The Executive	1026
Local Government	1026
Dominion and Colonial Government	1028
Australia	1028
The Executive Council	1030
The Cabinet	1030
Powers of the Governor-General	1032
The State Governors	1033
The Federal Parliament	1034
Administrative Government	1034
Local Government	1034
Canada-	1038
The Cabinet	1038
The Constitution	1038
Dominion Government	1038
Provincial Government	1048
Representation of the People	1048
Indian Empire	1048
Home Government	1048
Government of India	1050
The Parliament of India	1052
Provincial Government	1053
Local Administration	1053
Indian Civil Service	1054
Municipal Government	1054
Newfoundland	1054
New Zealand	1054
The Government	1057
Legislative Council	1060
House of Representatives	1062
Administration	1062
Local Government	1062
The Union of South Africa	1064
Parliament	1064
Northern Ireland	1064
Irish Free State	1066
Southern Rhodesia	1066
Other Colonies	1068

BRITISH GUIANA.

British Guiana	1070
England in South America	1070
Georgetown	1070
Climate	1072

Topography and Industries	1074
Mining	1079
The Interior	1081
Kaieteur Falls	1087
Railways and Telegraphs	1088
Government	1088

BRITISH HONDURAS.

British Honduras	1089
Spain and the Buccaneers	1089
Belize and the Highlands	1089
The Coast	1089
Industries	1092

IMPERIAL CONFERENCES.

Imperial Conferences	1095
--------------------------------	------

IMPERIAL INSTITUTE.

Imperial Institute	1096
Scientific and Technical Department	1096
Technical Information Bureau	1096
Publications	1099
Library	1099
Public Exhibition Galleries	1099
Cinema	1099
Mineral, Plant and Animal Products	1099

INDIAN EMPIRE.

Indian Empire	1100
India in the Dark Ages	1100
Dawn of European Adventure	1100
Rise of British Power in India	1104
France and England in India	1106
Warren Hastings to the Mutiny	1107
British Rule in India	1130
The Mutiny	1131
Formation of the British Indian Empire	1136
Imperial Indian Legislation	1156
The Indian Empire	1156
Foreign Territorial Rights	1158
British India	1158
The Deccan Plateau	1158

	PAGE		PAGE
The Plains of Northern India	1160	Assam	1199
The Himalayas	1160	Burma	1202
Calcutta	1162	Rangoon	1207
Bengal	1169	Mandalay	1214
From the Plains to the Hills	1170	Dependencies of British India	1223
Bihar and Orissa	1174	Aden	1223
Agra and Oudh	1176	Andaman, Laccadive and Nicobar	
Benares	1177	Groups	1223
Lucknow	1180	The Native States	1224
Cawnpore	1184	Mohammedan States	1224
Agra	1184	Mahratta States	1226
Delhi, Capital of the Indian Empire	1184	Sikh and Jât States	1228
The Punjab	1186	Rajput States of Rajputana	1226
The North-West Frontier Province	1188	Rajput States of Kathiawar	1230
Bombay Presidency	1190	States of Southern India	1232
City of Bombay	1190	States of Eastern India	1232
Central Provinces	1194	Feudatory India	1232
Madras Presidency	1197	Social Systems, Religions and Castes	1234
Madras City	1198	Hindu and Moslem Differences	1236

M A P S

Egypt	934	Southern India and Ceylon	1103
Sudan	934	India Facing page	1126
British Guiana	1080	India, North-West	1166
British Honduras	1080	India, East and Burma	1210
Trinidad	1080		

For Gazetteer and Index see end of work

THE EAST

BRITISH INTERESTS IN THE FAR AND MIDDLE EAST

THE two primary factors which must always be borne in mind when considering any branch of the great Imperial question of the Far and Middle East, are, firstly, that India forms the pivot of British power on the Continent of Asia—if once India were lost the Anglo-Asiatic empire and its island dependencies, consisting of about 3,000,000 square miles of territory, with a population of over 500,000,000, together with all the vast and complicated commercial, financial, and political interests which these huge domains imply, would be lost also. Moreover, our great self-governing dominions, whose oversea interests and commerce with India, and with the other portions of British Asia, are rapidly on the increase, would also be involved in ruinous financial embarrassment. Secondly, the markets of China, with its 450,000,000 inhabitants, must be kept open to the commerce of the world if the people of the British Empire would participate largely in the rising trade of the New China, which could easily absorb all the exports of manufactured goods from Great Britain were that vast market properly opened to commerce and protected from internal unrest and external aggression.*

Although India is the centre of British power in the East, and consequently, its well-being, and the safeguarding of it, must always form the basis of our Asiatic policy, there are in this part of the world other

interests of great importance which must not be neglected because they form only branches of our vast dominion in Southern Asia. The Empire in the East consists of: besides India and its protected states and spheres of influence, the Island of Ceylon, with its dependency the Maldivé Archipelago; Iraq; the Straits Settlements, including the Colony of Singapore, and the Island of Labuan; the Federated Malay States; British North Borneo; Brunei and Sarawak; Hong-Kong, the great centre of the foreign trade of Southern China, which enjoys a larger tonnage of shipping than almost any other port in the Empire; Shanghai, the purely commercial emporium on the lower Yang-Tsze-Kiang, which is the great fluvial highway for the commerce of the interior of China; and Wei-hai-wei, the British Naval base in North China, as well as the complicated interests obtained by treaty with the "Middle Kingdom," which are principally represented by what are known as "Treaty Ports." This is without Britain's sphere of interest in the Yang-Tsze Valley.

To further complicate the already intricate problems, which tax to the utmost the clear understanding of even those whose business it is to hold the reins of government, or to unravel the tangled web of affairs relating to the East, came, first, the now historic problem connected with the Russian advance from Siberia into Persia and China, with

* The Yellow Peril is at present more industrial than political. When the cheap-living millions of China understand the making and use of modern machinery, and come into open competition with the dearer-living manufacturing nations of America and Europe, the result will undoubtedly be detrimental to the latter, unless measures are taken to minimise the effect.

eyes steadily fixed upon Afghanistan, the occupation of which by a foreign Power would have seriously threatened the safety of India itself, and, in more recent years, the increasing influence of Germany, which had enabled her to obtain numerous strategic and commercial concessions in the Near and Far East; and, on that plea, to excuse her slow advance upon the British sphere of interest in Iraq and around the littoral of the Persian Gulf—which was for many years infested with pirates, slave-raiders and gun-runners, until cleared at great sacrifice and opened to the world's commerce by the British Navy. Persia's weakness in resisting new foreign influences and China's shaky condition in the throes of transition had also been for many years sources of constant anxiety to the British Empire and her ally, Japan.

The rise of Japan as a great island power in the East altered completely many phases of the Far Eastern question. The Anglo-Japanese Alliance greatly strengthened the Empire's position in Asia, and, at the same time, insured, not only the *open door* in China (*q.v.*) but also the safety of both India and Japan. Its effects were apparent in the Great European War, when Japan immediately joined forces with the Allies. The termination of this Alliance was mainly due to the removal of the cause which created it in the first instance—the encroachments of Russia and Germany on China and India.

There had, however, also to be taken into consideration that notwithstanding the fact that British power in the Far East rests mainly on sea power there was great weakness in the small military resources at command—previous to the Great European War—compared with the enormous forces of possible enemies (Russia and Germany) and the great length of frontier to be defended; and in the inability to largely reinforce the Indian Army with troops from Great Britain. These weaknesses in the defensive powers of Britain are now filled by the possible voluntary reserves of veteran troops available, a portion of which would, in combination with the efficient Indian Forces, be amply sufficient to crush the combined invasion of India by any two present-day European Powers (our ally, France, excepted) and the British Fleets would be equally as invincible on the high seas.

The *Entente Cordiale* and the mutual understanding between France and the British Empire, regarding Indo-China and Siam, have removed the long-standing differences in the valleys of the Mekong and Menam, which places any friction with this important Asiatic Power entirely out of the question, and leaves Britain and India free to face the commercial development of their Eastern domains and to allay the *promoted* unrest within the Indian Empire itself.

With the fall of Imperial Russia it might have been anticipated that one of the primary sources of danger to the British Empire in the East would have passed away, but the international revolutionary aims of the Russian Bolshevist régime has intensified rather than relieved the political situation in Asia. Trouble has been created along the whole frontier, from China to Palestine. In fact, the old "Russian Menace" still remains. Its form has, however, changed from *invasion* to *sedition*.

Only second in importance to the great Imperial problems of the Far East come the complex internal questions of India, and those of China. These are all dealt with in detail in separate articles and no further mention is therefore necessary here. At the risk of repetition (*Trade Routes*) a word must, however, be said regarding the main-line of Empire, for upon it many problems hinge. The ocean highway to the Far East passes through the Suez Canal and the Red Sea, which are bordered on the west by Egypt, the Sudan, and British Somaliland. These features of political geography should be remembered, as they have a very decided bearing on the *raison d'être* of the countries and Protectorates themselves and British influence therein, and also on the problems relating to the defence of the Empire's lines of communication. Napoleon once said "the secret of war lies in the communications." The gates of the East are at the entrance to the Suez Canal, and at the southern extremity of the Red Sea, where the waters narrow at the Straits of Bab-el-Mandeb, and are commanded by the British fortified base of Aden, on the Arabian mainland.

The only alternative to this route is the long voyage down the west coast of Africa and round the Cape of Good Hope—another fortified base; through the Panama Canal, past the British West Indies and ultimately

the Naval bases of Wei-hai-wei, Hong-Kong and Singapore ; or by many weeks' steaming half round the world, *via* Cape Horn and past the Falkland Islands and the Australasian naval bases. All of these are as difficult from a commercial as from a strategical point of view, therefore they need only be considered in relation to their value as *trade routes* (*q.v.*).

The importance of Aden to the British Empire in the East is proved by the inclusion of this sphere within the jurisdiction of the Indian Empire (see under *Indian Empire*).

The Far East may be said to commence at the great port of Singapore, which serves as another fortified gate on the ocean highway,

as it dominates the Straits of Malacca and possesses one of the busiest commercial harbours in the world. The Middle East is generally considered to extend from Aden to Singapore, and the Near East from Malta, Palestine and Egypt to Aden. From the British standpoint all countries, outside Europe, bordering the highway to India and the East are considered as coming within one of these three divisions, and all foreign, naval, military, colonial and general policy is subdivided in a like manner. This explains the repetition of the phrases "Near East," "Middle East," and "Far East" in all books, papers, and speeches dealing with affairs in these areas.



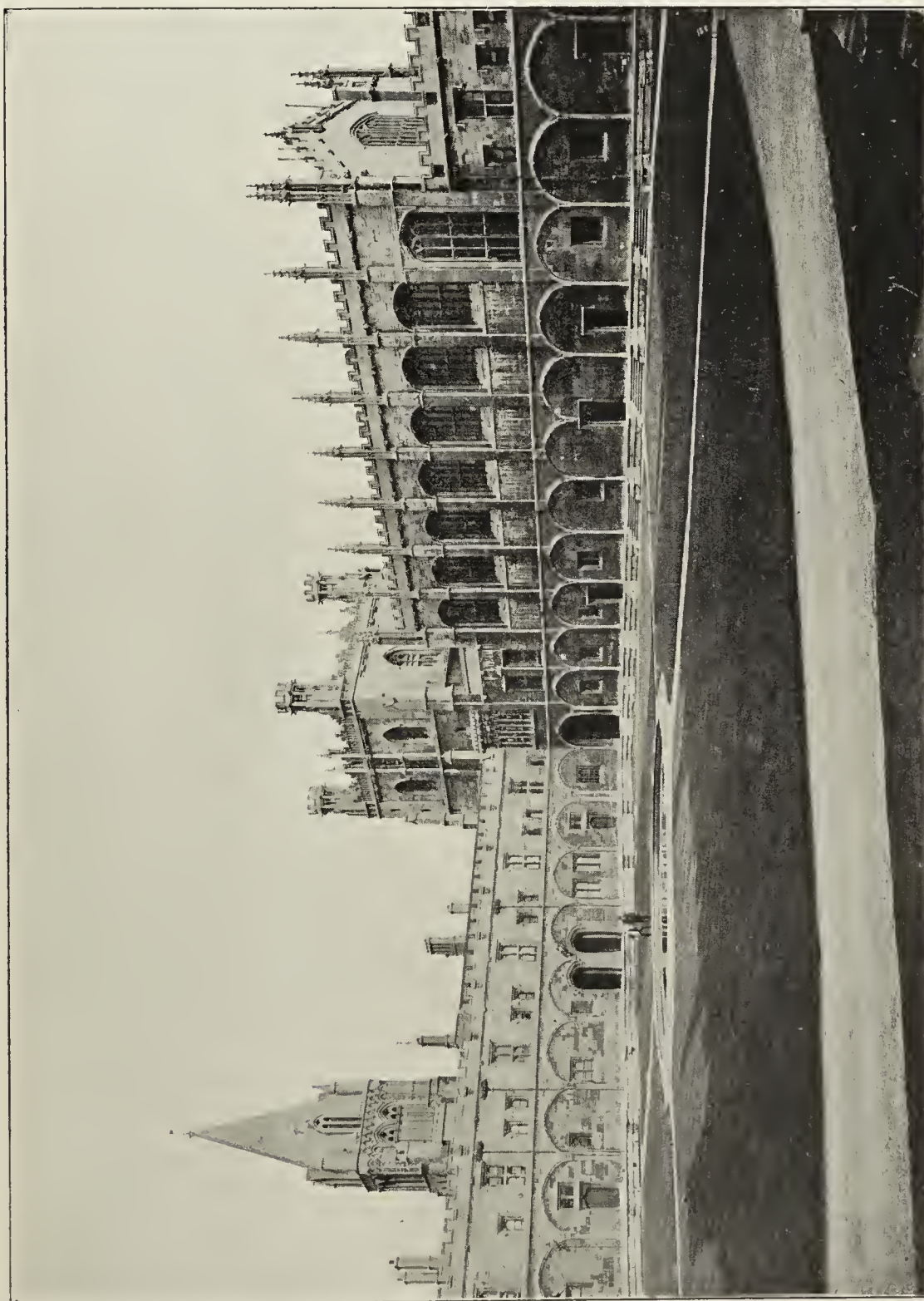
EDUCATION

THE child of to-day is the citizen of to-morrow in the life-time of a nation. In this phrase is summed up the importance of the educational systems of

the British and Indian Empires. The word *education* is, however, in itself almost encyclopedic, as it covers the whole field of the acquisition and distribution of knowledge, be it good or bad, mental, moral, or physical. But here we are concerned only with the systems in vogue, and not with the "reasons why," or education as a science. Yet it is impossible to explain the one without trenching in a small degree upon the other. For an example of this it is only necessary to refer to India, where education is rightly made subservient to a variety of customs, religions and requirements, totally different from those governing the educational systems of the White Empire, and different again from those unwritten laws in the conduct of education in the Black Empire. Hence there are three great divisions in the systems in vogue:—(1) the White system; (2) the Asiatic system; and (3) the Black system. Each of these systems is again subdivided into the two main divisions of education generally, namely, theoretical and practical. In the former is classed elementary, secondary and university education, and in the latter professional, commercial and general education, all of

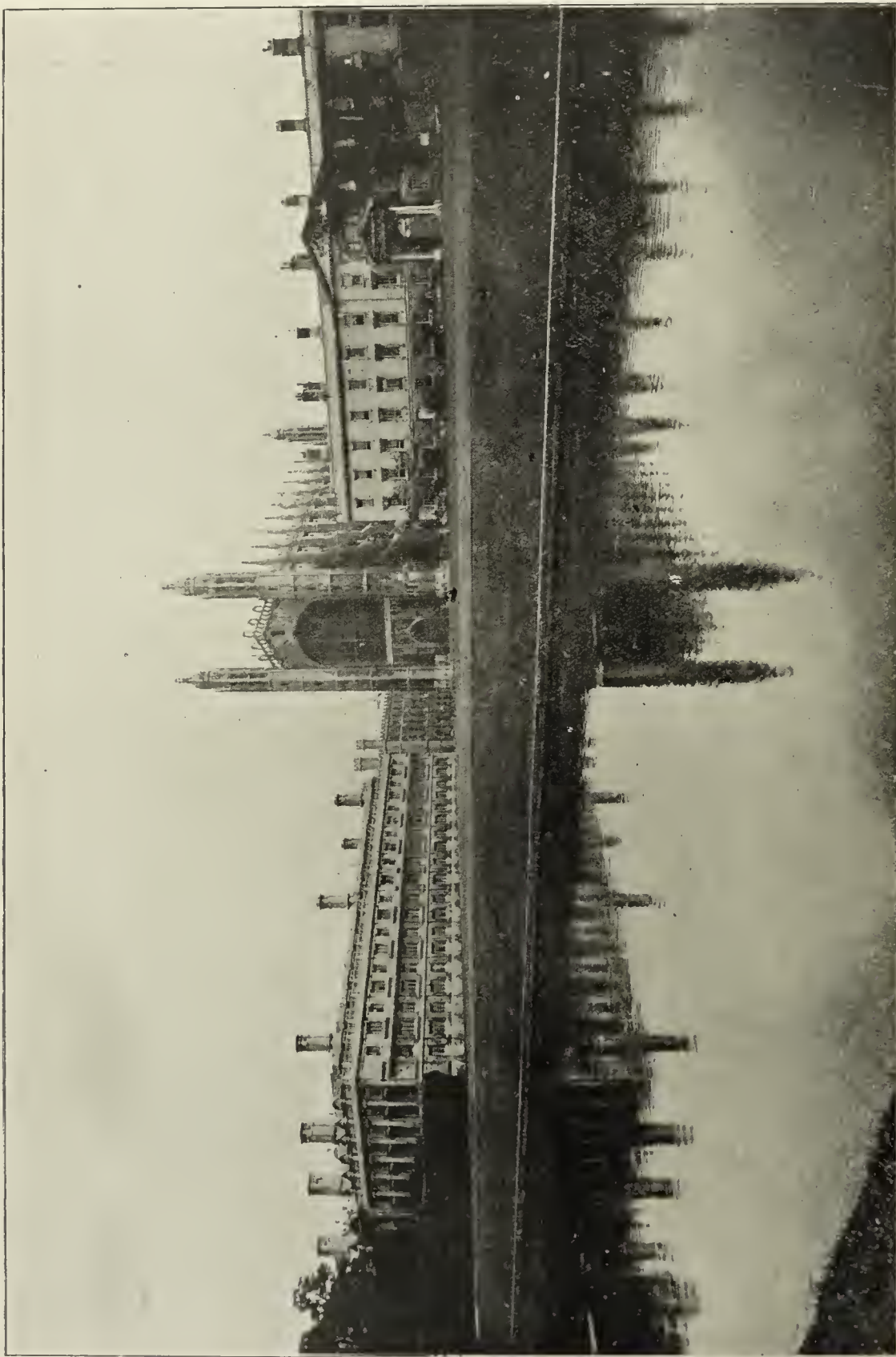


OXFORD Underwood Press Service
All Souls' — Wyatt's Quadrangle



THE QUADRANGLE, CHRIST CHURCH, OXFORD

Photo, W. H. Smith & Son



CAMBRIDGE, KING'S AND CLARE COLLEGES

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which are dependent on the literature in the English language and in those languages spoken by the coloured subjects of the King-Emperor, and are merely exercises of a systematic character intended to develop the brain and body of the child in order that the adult may understand the use of books and the actions of the men with whom civilisation will bring him into intercourse and with whom he will compete.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Public elementary education is both free and compulsory for children between the ages of 5 and 14 (in Scotland, 15 years), and the schools are known as ordinary Public Elementary Schools. These are divided into "Provided" and "Non-Provided." In the former case the building and its maintenance is provided by the public, and in the latter case by some religious or special denomination. All are, however, subject to a certain degree of inspection and control by the central or local authority. The central authority is the Board of Education.

These schools (about 22,006) are scattered all over the country both in the towns and in the country districts, and the number of children attending them averages about 5,004,200. There are, in addition, about fifty Higher Elementary Schools, accommodating about 11,000 pupils, and there are also special schools for defective children in the populous centres.

Secondary education is conducted in 1,300 schools and by 8,900 evening, or continuation schools, as well as by special day technical classes (120), technical institutions (60), art classes (53), and schools of art and science (301). A Bill has been passed by Parliament providing for continuation classes up to the age of 16 years.

The training of teachers for the public elementary schools is conducted at Pupil-teacher Centres, and, for those desiring certificates, at Training Colleges.

The total cost of the State educational system of England and Wales is extremely high compared with that of many other countries, and amounts on an average to over £120,000,000 (including local contributions).

There are, in addition to the State schools, a very large number of establishments of a more select character, classified under the

generic name of "The Public Schools." In these are educated the sons and daughters of the middle and upper classes, who pay for the tuition received.

There are twelve Universities in addition to several University Colleges. Oxford University was founded in 1249 and 1274, although one College — University — was founded long before this date; Cambridge was established in 1284; Durham in 1832; London in 1836; Manchester in 1850; the University of Wales in 1893; Birmingham in 1900; Liverpool in 1903; Leeds in 1904; Sheffield in 1905; Bristol in 1909; and Reading in 1926. The University Colleges are situated in various parts of the Kingdom (such as Southampton and Exeter). Several of the Universities admit women students, and there are special colleges at Cambridge and Oxford. The best-known institutions for the higher education of women are Girton College, and Newnham College at Cambridge, and several similar establishments in Oxford.

The conduct and supervision of Legal education for admission to the Bar and the Roll of Solicitors is entirely in the hands of the General Council of the Bar and the Law Society; but legal degrees are conferred by many of the Universities.

Naval education, which is entirely in the hands of the Admiralty, is conducted at the Royal Naval College at Dartmouth (for Cadets), and, with higher instruction, at the Royal Naval College, Greenwich, and the Royal Naval Staff College. There are about twenty training ships for seamen, artificers and stokers for the Royal Navy stationed in various parts of the country.

Military education is in the hands of the Army Council, and there are establishments at Sandhurst and Woowich (for Cadets), Camberly (Imperial Staff), Netheravon (Cavalry), Shoeburyness (Gunnery), Woolwich (Ordnance), Chatham (Military Engineering), Hythe (Musketry), Plymouth and Portsmouth (Electric Lighting), Aldershot (Signalling, Gymnasium, Army Service Corps), and Hounslow (Royal Military School of Music).

The General Medical Council supervise this branch of professional education. There are medical schools attached to most of the principal hospitals in the Metropolis, and also to many of the provincial hospitals.



A GENERAL VIEW OF HARROW SCHOOL

Photo, Sport and General Press Agency

The leading college for women students is at the Royal Free Hospital, London. There are several important Institutions teaching special medical subjects, quite apart from the hospitals and Universities.

There are colleges of agriculture, art and architecture, dentistry, engineering, music, theology, and veterinary surgery, in London and in the provinces.

In Scotland the system of public elementary education is almost identical to that in operation in England and Wales, and is free and compulsory for children between the ages of 5 and 15. There are about 2,900 primary schools and about 350 Higher Grade Schools, with an average attendance of about 680,000. In addition there are over 900 continuation classes. There are many Public Schools, and the University of St. Andrews, founded in 1411; of Glasgow in 1450; of Aberdeen in 1494; and of Edinburgh in 1582. There is also the Scottish University College (Glasgow) founded in 1796.

NORTHERN IRELAND.

In this State the educational system is similar to that of Scotland. There are about 2,000 elementary schools, with 201,000 pupils; 75 preparatory, intermediate and secondary schools, with 10,600 pupils, and 100 technical and art centres, with 21,820 students. There are also a number of large and small private schools. The Queen's University of Belfast was founded in 1909.

IRISH FREE STATE.

While the system of elementary education in this Dominion is paid for and controlled by the State, secondary education is very largely denominational, with grants-in-aid from the funds of the Central Government. School attendance is compulsory for children between the ages of 6 and 14 years.

The cost of elementary education averages just under £4,000,000 a year, while the State assistance towards the cost of secondary education amounts to about £300,000 per annum.

There are two Universities: Trinity College, the University of Dublin, was founded in 1591; and the National University in 1908. This latter institution has separate colleges in Dublin, Cork and

Galway. There is also an Irish University College in Londonderry, founded in 1865.

AUSTRALIA.

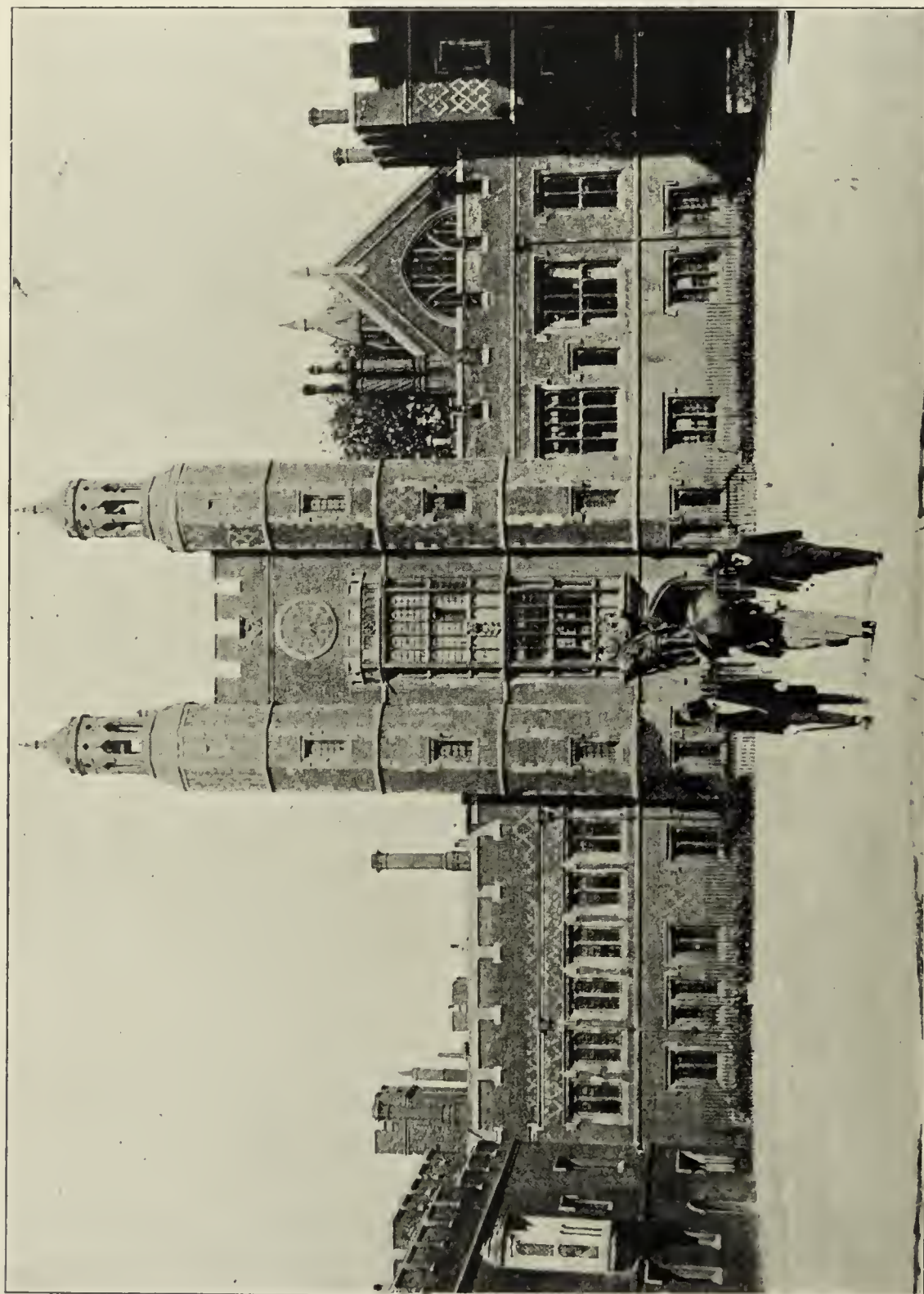
In all the States of the Commonwealth, public primary education is compulsory and free, while in those States possessing higher public schools and universities, free admission is granted to the children of parents unable to pay the fees.* Moreover, throughout Australia, there is very liberal provision in the way of scholarships and bursaries, which open the way to all children, without distinction of class or religion, to the higher State schools, to the Secondary Schools and to the Universities. It has always been the aim of the Australian Government to spread the advantages of primary education as widely as possible, and this is accomplished in various ways.

All the capital cities have a university, and the larger towns are provided with a considerable number of schools, which in respect of general design and equipment are very similar to schools of the same class in the United Kingdom. In the more sparsely-peopled country districts there are smaller State or "provisional" schools. In still more thinly-peopled areas, half-time schools are to be found, *i.e.*, schools which are visited alternately by the one teacher, while itinerant teachers visit the scattered settlers in the "back blocks." In some States, the plan has been adopted of closing clusters of small country schools, and replacing them by a larger central institution, to which the children are conveyed each day.

There are in all 9,200 State schools, where 20,000 teachers are engaged in the instruction of 820,000 children, and about 2,000 private schools with 7,600 teachers and 125,000 pupils.

The development of technical education has so far been somewhat uneven in Australia, but the results achieved give every promise of greater success in the near future. Excellent technical instruction in agriculture, mining, and engineering is given at various institutions throughout the Commonwealth. In most country towns there is a School of Arts, to which is generally attached a public library, and newspapers containing cabled news from all over the world are regarded by Australians as a matter of daily necessity.

* In South Australia education at the High Schools as well as primary schools is free.



THE FOURTH OF JUNE CELEBRATIONS AT ETON
The College Quadrangle

Photo, Sport and General Press Agency



GOLDSMITHS'
INSTITUTE



TOLLINGTON STREET
CENTRAL SCHOOL
(Physical Drill)



WOOLWICH ROAD
MEDICAL
TREATMENT
CENTRE
(Operating Room)



WOOLWICH ROAD
MEDICAL
TREATMENT
CENTRE
(Minor Ailments Room)



THE UNIVERSITY OF TASMANIA
 Situated in beautiful grounds at Hobart, the capital

Photo, Australian Government

The Universities of the Commonwealth are : Sydney, founded in 1851, Melbourne in 1853, Adelaide in 1874, Tasmania in 1889, Queensland in 1909, and Western Australia in 1911. University Extension Lectures are given periodically at various centres in several States.

CANADA.

The Educational systems of the Dominion are almost entirely in the hands of the Provincial Governments. There are 36,115 elementary and secondary schools with over 2,112,809 pupils. Attendance at the elementary schools is compulsory in all the Provinces except Quebec (and in remote areas). The Universities and the University Colleges number 109, with 64,769 students.

The private schools and business colleges, of which there are 179, have an average enrolment of over 30,000 pupils. The aver-

age annual cost of the educational systems of Canada, exclusive of private schools, is £30 millions.

Three miles or less is the distance between the primary schools of Prince Edward Island. At Charlottetown the Government maintains the Prince of Wales College and an affiliated Normal School, whose graduates are accepted at McGill, Montreal's famous University. St. Dunstan's College, in Charlottetown, is a Roman Catholic Institution which sends to Laval University of Montreal and Quebec the students who complete its course of instruction.

From primary to academic years the public school system of Nova Scotia is entirely free and open to the children of all the people irrespective of creed. Each county has its high school or academy, and there are several Universities. The province supports a Normal School, also agricultural and horticultural schools at Truro. Dalhousie College

and the University at Halifax are undenominational. This city also has a school for the blind and an institution for the deaf and dumb, and is the seat of a Presbyterian Theological College. King's College at Windsor, Acadia College at Wolfville, and St. Francis Xavier at Antigonish are under the jurisdiction of Anglicans, Baptists, and Roman Catholics respectively.

In New Brunswick free undenominational schools are supported by the province, and at Fredericton there is an excellent Normal School for the training of teachers. Three Universities are maintained, located in Sackville, Fredericton, and Memramcook.

Catholic and Protestant education is entirely distinct in the Province of Quebec. The denominational school boards appointed by the Council of Public Instruction have an equal number of members, and taxpayers

may elect whether their money shall pay for their children's education in Catholic or Protestant schools. This plan of religious control has worked well, particularly in the cities of Montreal and Quebec. The chief Universities are McGill—an undenominational institution at Montreal,—and the Roman Catholic Laval University at Quebec, with a large branch at Montreal. Sir William Macdonald has established, at Ste. Anne de Bellevue, an agricultural college and experimental farm affiliated to McGill University. Their cost exceeded £2,000,000. This gives a mighty impetus to agricultural interests in the province. In connection with Laval University the Trappist Fathers are carrying on an agricultural college at Oka. At Lennoxville there is an Anglican University called Bishop's College, and in connection with it is a school modelled after the public schools of



Photo, Australian Government

TEACHING SCHOOL GIRLS TO SWIM IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA



A COOKERY CLASS
Swinburne Technical College, Melbourne

Photo, Australian Government

England. There are also numerous Normal Schools in different parts of the more thickly populated districts.

The educational system of the Province of Ontario includes the Kindergarten, the State School, the High or Secondary School and the University. It is based on what is best in the systems of Great Britain, the United States and Germany. The State Schools are unsectarian, education is free and attendance is compulsory. The University of Toronto is undenominational. It draws a large proportion of its 400 students from the farming population of the province. Denominational Universities are : Queen's (Presbyterian), Kingston ; Victoria (Methodist), Toronto ; The Western (Episcopalian), London ; Trinity (Episcopalian), Toronto ; Ottawa (Roman Catholic), and McMaster (Baptist) Toronto. There are also a number of Colleges, and many High Schools. Public libraries are in almost all the cities and towns of the province, and in many of the villages.

The principal agricultural institutions are : The Ontario Agricultural College with 900 students, and the Macdonald Institute, with 398 girl students.

In Manitoba the separate schools were abolished in 1890 and there is now but one State school system, free to all denominations. There are high schools in all the cities and larger towns, and collegiate institutes at Winnipeg, Brandon, and Portage la Prairie. Winnipeg has also a Normal School for the training of teachers, and a well-equipped agricultural college. There is a Provincial University, with high standards of scholarship, and also several denominational institutions. The Dominion Government has set apart two sections of land in each township, the income from which, with a supplementary land tax, supports the schools of the province. In 1905, consolidated schools were an experiment ; to-day they are a success. The vans used for transporting the children are all well covered and protected from the weather, so

that only in a few cases has it been found necessary to use foot warmers. So successful has the plan proved that the attendance has greatly increased because of it.

In Saskatchewan the schools are maintained by provincial aid and local rates. Except in special cases where qualified teachers cannot be obtained, the teacher must hold a certificate of qualification granted by the Department of Education. Nowhere do the agricultural authorities give greater attention to the welfare and education of the farmer than in the newer districts of this province. The University of Saskatchewan, at Saskatoon, is one of the finest institutions of the Canadian West, and is supported and controlled by the province. It was planned on a scale to accommodate students from the entire north west of the Dominion, and its cost was about £1,000,000. In architecture it is similar to the University of Chicago. In connection with it is a college of arts and science, and a college of agri-

culture presided over by eastern university men.

In Alberta there are several thousand Primary Schools, and High Schools have been opened at various points. The province owns 258 acres of land at South Edmonton, just across the Saskatchewan River from Edmonton, where a worthy University has been established and higher education is assured the youth of the province. Calgary has a large Normal School.

Demonstration farms are established at different points in the province for the purpose of educating the farmer in the best methods to adopt in carrying on his farming operations to the best advantage.

The school system in British Columbia is free and non-sectarian, and is equally as efficient as that of any other province in the Dominion. The Government builds a school-house, makes a grant for incidental expenses and pays a teacher in every district where twenty children between the ages of 6 and



GIRLS' HIGH SCHOOL, ECHUCA, VICTORIA

Photo, Australian Government

16 can be brought together. For outlying farming districts and mining camps this arrangement is very advantageous. High Schools are also established in cities, where the classics and higher mathematics are taught. Several British Columbia cities now have charge of their own public and high schools, and these receive a very liberal *per capita* grant in aid from the Provincial Government.

are affiliated to McGill University, Montreal, and have high school and university departments. A University of British Columbia has been established during recent years and 2,000,000 acres of public land have been set apart as an endowment.

LIBRARIES.

There are various kinds of libraries in Canada ; school, college, university, and



Photo, Australian Government

THE UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AUSTRALIA AND ACADEMY OF MUSIC, ADELAIDE

The high schools are distributed as follows : Victoria (Victoria College), Vancouver (Vancouver College), New Westminster, Nanaimo, Duncan, Nelson, Rossland, Cumberland, Vernon, Kaslo, Chilliwack, Grand Forks, Kamloops, Armstrong, Golden, Kelowna, Enderby, Peachland, Penticton, Salmon Arm, Ladysmith and Revelstoke. There is a Provincial Normal School at Vancouver and many excellent private colleges and boarding schools. Victoria and Vancouver colleges

government, while free public libraries afford means of self-education for all. The first public library in Canada was founded at Niagara in 1800 ; at the present time there is a network throughout the country, some form of public library legislation existing in all the provinces and the Yukon and, assistance being given by money grants and special taxes. Scattered settlers and mining camps are served by travelling libraries. This movement, starting in 1890, has grown

steadily ; in some of the provinces the work is carried on under government auspices, while several of the leading universities maintain travelling libraries. Several of the universities and the Ontario Department of Education have library schools giving courses of varying length. Library training is given also in the normal schools while several of the larger libraries conduct "apprentice classes" in order to have trained assistants in times of emergency.

There are public and district schools for European children. Religious instruction is given, but no pupil need be present if his parents object. The cost of education is provided for by school fees, largely supplemented by contributions from the rates. Compulsory school attendance is in force in 100 of the 119 School Districts. Above the public schools are the colleges, in a sense affiliated to the University at Cape Town. The medium of instruction is now both



SYDNEY, NEW SOUTH WALES, FROM THE AIR *Photo, Australian Government*
St. Ignatius College in the foreground

THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

Elementary Education in South Africa is under the jurisdiction of the Provincial Councils. There are about 4,766 schools for white children and 3,400 for coloured children, with 359,000 white scholars and 282,000 coloured pupils, under 23,130 teachers.

In the Cape Province the School Board Acts, 1905-1908, provide for the establishment of School Districts and School Boards.

English and *Afrikaans* (South-African-Dutch).

In Natal education is compulsory for children from 7 to 14 years of age. There are numerous government schools, as well as aided and farm schools in country districts ; children are admitted without fees, if their parents are too poor to pay any. There is also a large number of private schools ; and more advanced schools at Pietermaritzburg and Durban. There is a Horticultural



NORMAL SCHOOL, CALGARY, ALBERTA

Photo, C.P. Rly.

College for women near Pinetown. Higher education is provided for at the Natal University College.

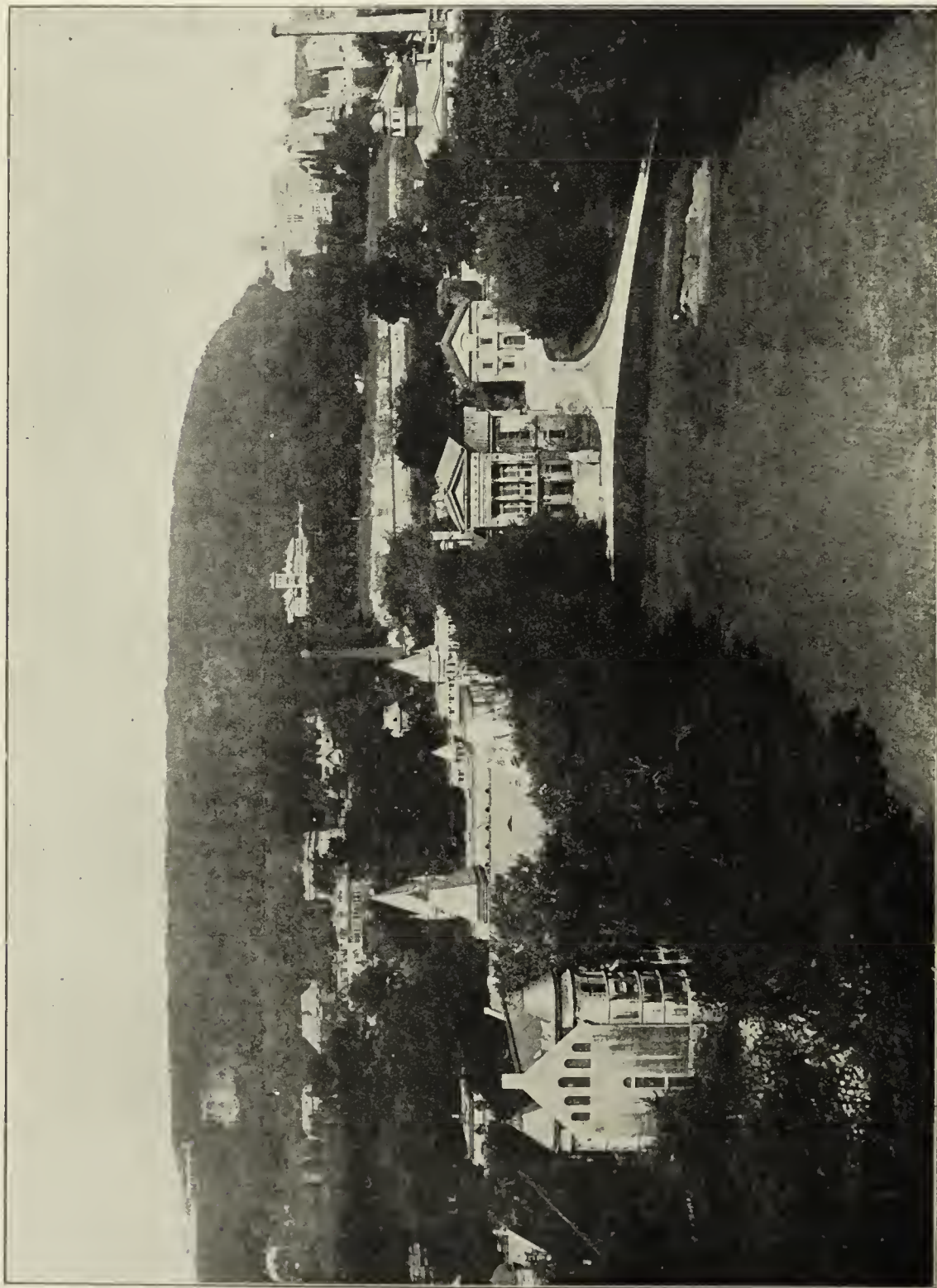
In the Transvaal education is compulsory for children from 7 to 15. In all the towns and on many of the farms elementary schools have been opened at which instruction is provided free of cost. The medium of instruction is both English and *Afrikaans*.

"The Transvaal University College," Pretoria, "The Transvaal College of Agriculture," and "The South African School of Mines and Technology," Johannesburg, provide respectively for higher education in the arts and sciences, for agricultural instruction, and for mining and technical education.

In the Orange Free State Province fees are payable in respect of pupils at all primary and secondary schools, provision being made for exemption in necessitous cases. Here also the medium of instruction is both English and *Afrikaans*. Religious instruc-

tion can only be given by members of the school staff, and dogmatic teaching is prohibited during schools hours, except in country schools when parents request that such instruction be given. The Grey University College at Bloemfontein provides for higher education.

The Education Department of the Union Government controls the State Universities and their attached Colleges. *The University of South Africa* was created in 1918 by changing the name of the University of the Cape of Good Hope. It has the following constituent Colleges: (1) Rhodes College, Grahamstown, incorporated 1904; (2) Huguenot College, Wellington, 1907; (3) Grey University College, Bloemfontein, 1910; (4) Transvaal University College, Pretoria, 1910; (5) Natal University College, Pietermaritzburg, 1909; and (6) Potchefstroom University College, 1921. There is also the *University of Cape Town*, created in 1918 in succession to the South African College,



MCGILL UNIVERSITY, MONTREAL

Photo, C.P. Rly



A SCHOOL ON THE CANADIAN PRAIRIE

Photo, C. P. Rly.

founded in 1829 ; the *University of Stellenbosch* which succeeded the Victoria College in 1918 ; and the *University of Witwatersrand*, formed in 1921 from University College, Johannesburg, which was established in 1910. In addition there is the State-aided South African Native College, at Alice, Cape Province, for the higher education of natives. The amount spent annually in the various branches of the educational system averages about £8,000,000, of which £340,000 comes from the Union Government. There are also about 690 private schools with 39,000 pupils.

NEW ZEALAND.

The system of primary education is free, secular and compulsory. There are about 2,700 schools for elementary education with 230,000 scholars and 7,000 teachers. In addition there are 310 registered private primary schools with over 27,000 pupils, and 130 special schools for Maori children. Higher education is provided in the large cities and towns by 41 endowed grammar schools and 14 technical high schools and 8 day technical schools. There are also 77 secondary departments of district high schools and 39 private secondary schools.

There are four Training Colleges for teachers with provision for 500 students. New Zealand supplies certain school books free to children attending the public elementary schools and also issues, monthly, free of cost, a School Journal of exceptional interest. Subsidies in aid of school libraries are also paid by the government. Children having to travel to school are given free passes on the railways, and where there is no railway an allowance is made for conveyance by vehicle or ferrying, or for the board of pupils in the vicinity of a school. The system of public school cadets gives a training in military and physical drill. The medical inspection of school children is also in operation.

The University of New Zealand, founded in 1870, is authorised by Royal Charter to confer degrees. The subjects in which degrees are conferred include arts, law, medicine, science, engineering and commerce. Affiliated to the University are the Colleges at Auckland, Otago, Canterbury and Victoria. There are between 400 and 500 public libraries subsidised by the State ; and a national endowment of 9,000,000 acres of land for education and old-age pensions (70 per cent. goes to education).

INDIA.

Both good and bad have been the results of English education in the Indian Empire. It commenced early in the 18th century with the introduction of English literature and the teaching of the English language by the three famous missionaries, Carey, Martyn and Duff, in Bombay, Calcutta and Madras. The institutions they established supplied the Government with junior officials who could read and write in English. In 1837, acting on the advice of Lord Macaulay, the Government made English the medium for higher education, and this was followed by the disappearance of the Indian vernaculars from the Departments of State.

The period which followed was one of competition. At first, however, English was not popular, especially among the Hindus and Mohammedans; then came the establishment of examining universities having power to grant certificates and degrees, and

matriculation became the qualification for the coveted appointments under Government. This gave the required stimulus and the popularity of the English language, literature and education generally, steadily grew until success at the university became the desire of every ambitious youth, and to-day there is scarcely a clerk, above the level of an office-boy, who does not work in English and in the most approved Western manner.

For some time the Mohammedans held aloof, but they too are now seeking English instruction in rapidly increasing numbers. According to official figures the number of Indians who can read and write in English is about 1,800,000. There are 8,000 ordinary schools and 200 colleges in which English is taught to between 700,000 and 800,000 students continually. About 40,000 of these students appear at the annual Matriculation examinations, and 9,000 at the Intermediate



THE UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, BLOEMFONTEIN, ORANGE FREE STATE

One of the Colleges of the University of South Africa

Photo, South African Rlys.

examinations. The number of degrees granted each year exceeds 2,500. There are also over 10,000 secondary schools with 1,600,000 pupils and over 200,000 primary schools with 7,400,000 students, in addition to 5,000 special schools and 36,000 private establishments. Only about 106 men and 10 women per 1,000 can read and write.

There are 15 Universities, situated at Delhi, (the Imperial Capital), Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Allahabad, Benares (Hindu), Patna, Dacca, Lahore, Aligarh, (Mohammedan) Hyderabad, Mysore, Lucknow, Nagpur, and Rangoon (Burmese).

Of the 8,200 schools and colleges in which English is taught only a fifth are directly controlled by the Government, by far the largest number being managed by committees or individuals receiving financial aid from the State. In most cases the buildings were erected by voluntary subscription and the Government then came forward and offered a liberal annual subsidy for the maintenance of the school, college, or technical institution. By this system the study of English was legitimately encouraged without in the slightest degree being forced upon the people of India; and the result has been eminently satisfactory so far as actual knowledge is concerned. Hitherto the universities have paid more attention to examining than to teaching, and the tendency is now to increase the number of these institutions, but to limit their size, and for the Government to take a larger share in their management. Only the village schools and those of the most elementary character in the towns now teach *entirely* in the vernacular.

From a moral standpoint—that on which education and religion should converge—the results of education have been disappointing, and this is not altogether confined to the East. In India it is asserted that the old influences of home and religion have been undermined, and no new *influences* of a sufficiently strong character to grip the native mind have replaced them, the result has too often been unrest and immorality. This is also frequently the case when Indian youths are sent to Europe for education. This, however, cannot altogether be set down to education, for Indian youths have always been irregular and Indian parents far too indulgent; but the effect of education on many Indians causes them to make light of

morality and creates unrest. Although, generally, it is popular, it has not so far succeeded in stimulating, in a uniform manner, *practical application* in after-life.

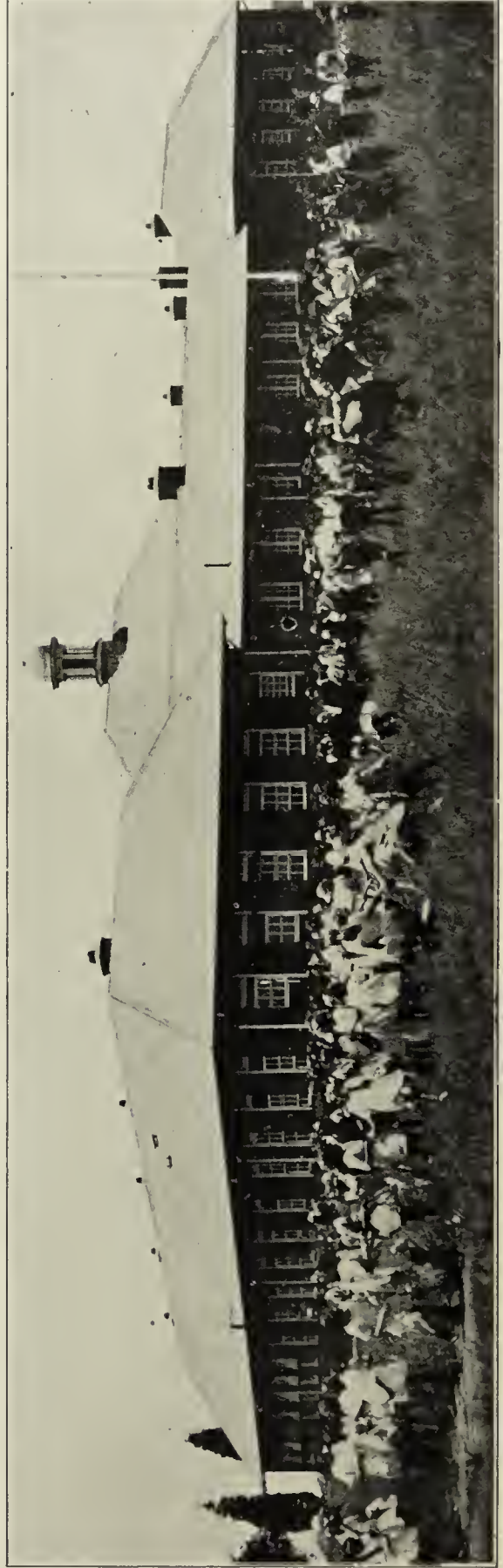
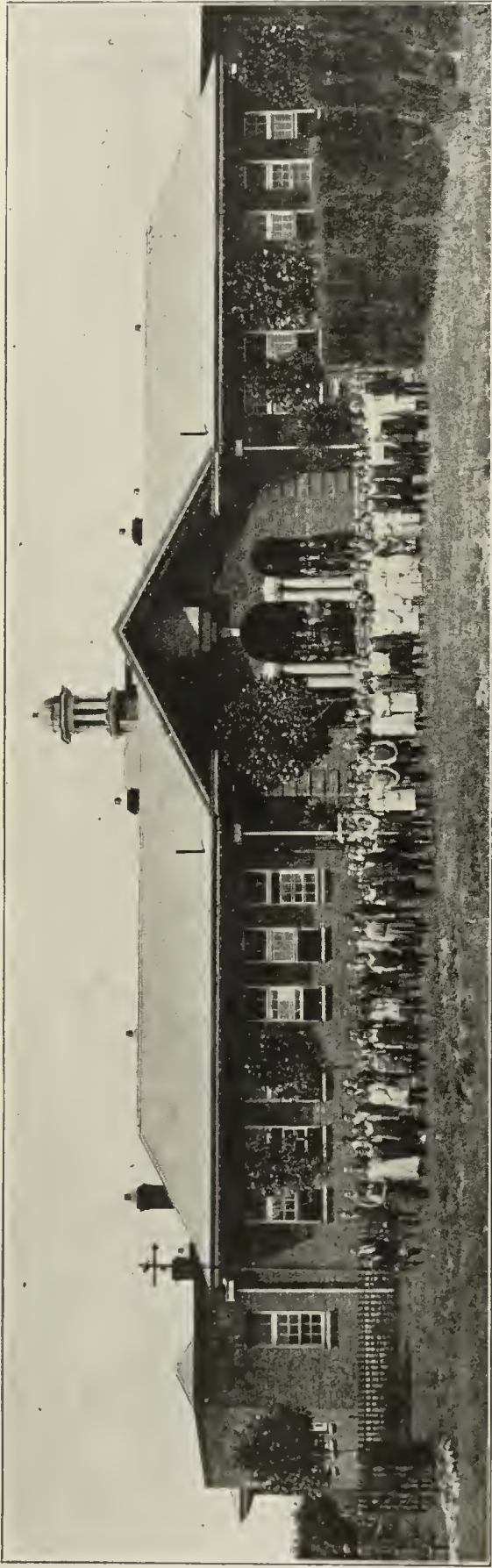
In the Mohammedan schools the Koran, with a commentary, as well as the full tenets of this powerful religion are taught in addition to the secular subjects. The Anglo-Mohammedan College at Aligarh is the finest institution of its kind in the world. It is the general opinion of educationists in the East that the old religions should be supported and taught in conjunction with the secular subjects of Western civilisation.

Turning to the subject of technical education we find between 30 and 40 medical colleges with over 5,000 students, four veterinary colleges with 500 to 800 students, about eighteen engineering colleges with 1,000 students, three agricultural colleges and two law colleges. There are also a large number of technical classes for handicrafts, art and science. From the medical, veterinary and engineering colleges many students enter Government employ, and Indian bar-risters are both numerous and clever.

Summarising education in India we find that within the last fifty years the Government has been responsible for the creation of a system of primary education in *vernacular* comprising about 200,000 schools in the towns and villages of the Empire which are attended by over 7,400,000 pupils. Only one-seventh of this number are girls. The pupils generally pay a small fee, but exemption from payment is readily granted. There are 8,200 schools and colleges in which English is taught, and forty-two technical colleges, several hundred technical day and night classes and a large number of benevolent institutions. In the whole of India about 20,000,000 men and about 2,200,000 women can read and write.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA.

The facilities for the education of European children in Southern Rhodesia include (1) the Government High Schools for boys and girls with boarding accommodation; (2) the Government High Schools without boarding accommodation; (3) Public Schools for both sexes with and without boarding accommodation; (4) Primary schools for children below Standard IV; (5) Farm schools; (6) Private State-aided schools; and (7) Schools



(1) THE HIGH SCHOOL, KRUGERSDORP

(2) THE RANDFONTEIN SCHOOL



THE CONVENT SCHOOL, KRUGERSDORP

Photo, South African Rlys.

for native children. The High Schools are situated at Salisbury (boarding), and Bulawayo (boarding). The public schools are at Sinoia, Umtali, Gwelo, Enkeldoorn, Victoria and Melsetter (all with boarding accommodation for boys and girls), and at Plumtree for boys above Standard III. Those at Gatooma, Que-Que, Selukwe, Penhalonga, Shamva Mine, Lonely Mine, Eiffel Flats, Daisyfield, Wankie and Unvuma are without boarding accommodation. The schools in Class 4 are: Avondale, Hatfield, Hillside and Parktown, near Salisbury; and Bellevue, Glenville, Hillside and Raylton, near Bulawayo. There are about 60 Farm Schools scattered over the principal agricultural and mining areas.

All these farm schools are under Government inspection and control, and additional Farm Schools may be opened as required, wherever ten children of school age can be collected at one place, not within reach of another Public School. In these farm schools the Government pays the teacher's salary and supplies ordinary school requisites. The farmers interested provide a building and the larger pieces of school furniture, *viz.*, table and chair, cupboard, desks and benches.

The fees in Farm Schools are the same as in other Government schools.

The High Schools in Salisbury and Bulawayo prepare pupils for the Matriculation Examination of the University of South Africa. The Umtali and Gwelo Public Schools are in a position to carry pupils as far as the University Junior Certificate.

About forty-eight scholarships—each of the value of £32 per annum for boarders, or £16 per annum for day pupils—are offered every year by the Beit Trustees for competition among the schools of South Rhodesia. These scholarships are tenable for three years, and the competition for them is limited, in the case of the Senior Class, to children under fifteen, and in the Junior Class to children under thirteen.

Rhodesian boys are eligible to compete for three Rhodes Scholarships to the value of £350 per annum, for three years, tenable at Oxford University. Rhodes scholars must have passed the Intermediate B.A. Examination of the Cape, or an equivalent elsewhere, and must have passed their nineteenth birthday, before proceeding to Oxford.

In addition to the Public Schools of Rhodesia, the following Aided Schools share

in the above privileges, receive aid from Government, and are open to inspection by the Government Inspectors of Schools, St. George's School, Bulawayo, The Convent School, Salisbury, and the Plumtree College, (mainly boarding). There are also several hundred schools for native children.

NEWFOUNDLAND

In this Dominion the educational system is entirely denominational, but is assisted financially by the Government. The grant-in-aid averages about £300,000 a year. The number of pupils attending the elementary and secondary schools is about 61,000.

EDUCATION IN THE CROWN COLONIES.

In these colonies and dependencies either the Asiatic or Black systems are in operation, although, of course, there are numerous schools and colleges for European children.

Only brief mention is necessary here of education in *many* of these parts because, for health as well as for intellectual reasons, it is the custom of British residents to send their children to school in Great Britain or the Dominions.

In the Straits Settlements there are both English and vernacular Government schools which are attended by thousands of native pupils of both sexes. In Malacca there is a training college for Malay teachers.

The Federated Malay States have a number of English schools either maintained or assisted by the Government, as well as vernacular establishments situated in all parts of the country.

The educational system of Ceylon is under the Government Director of Education and a staff of inspectors. In addition to the purely vernacular schools, of which there are several hundred, there are also the English and Anglo-vernacular establishments for boys and girls, attended by 50,000 to



THE UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN

Photo, South African Rly.

60,000 students. In the vernacular Government schools education is free, but fees are charged in the English schools. The Government maintains the Royal College and the Training College, with the English school attached. Technical education is provided in a number of technical and industrial schools. The Cambridge Local examinations as well as several of the London University examinations are held annually in the Colony by special arrangement, and the

supervision. The Government Schools, which have a number of English teachers, include the Kowloon and Victoria schools for both boys and girls of British parents; Queen's College (mostly Chinese); the Belilios Girls' School; and other English schools for Chinese boys. There is also a Police School (Indian) and a Technical Institute.

The State-aided mission system is in vogue in the Fiji Islands, but there are two public schools at Suva, one for girls and one



THE SCHOOL OF ART, CHRISTCHURCH

Photo, New Zealand Government

Government gives two scholarships tenable in England.

With the opening of the Hong Kong University in 1912, this flourishing little Colony became the leading British educational centre in the Far East. There are faculties of Arts, Medicine and Engineering. The number of Students is steadily increasing, and there is a highly-competent staff of British Professors and Lecturers. The ordinary educational system is largely denominational, but the schools are subject to official

for boys, and in Sevuka there is a mixed school. These receive substantial Government grants. Good facilities are provided for the instruction of European children.

In the Gold Coast Colony of British West Africa the system is principally denominational, but there are a few Government schools under direct control. In Ashanti there are several Missions which have native schools attached. There is also a Government school. In the Northern Territory there are several Government Schools, in-

cluding one at Tamale, and the other at Gambaga.

Sierra Leone possesses a large number of elementary schools with several thousands of students, besides secondary schools, some of which are managed by missionaries and the remainder by private persons; there is also a technical school. Fourah Bay College, the leading institution in the colony, is

elementary schools receiving Government aid. The Wesleyans have a secondary school and a technical school.

The educational system of Nigeria is the most extensive in West Africa. The primary and secondary schools of Southern Nigeria have a considerable staff of teachers and over thirty technical instructors. There is a special residential school at Bonny; a



Photo, Niger Co.

A MISSION SCHOOL AT ONITSHA, SOUTHERN NIGERIA

affiliated to the University of Durham. There are in addition several Mohammedan schools under the Government Education Department. Mohammedan youths are being trained as teachers. In the Sierra Leone *Protectorate* there are a few schools attached to the various missions as well as Mohammedan schools. At Bo, a railway centre, there is a special Government school under European management for the sons and nominees of native chiefs.

The system in the Gambia Colony is denominational, and there are a number of

Government secondary school at Lagos; and a school at Calabar.

The system in Northern Nigeria is similar to that in vogue in the Sudan, and only secular subjects are compulsory. There are, however, several Protestant and Roman Catholic Mission Schools. Kano, where the principal establishments are situated, is a flourishing Mohammedan centre (*q.v.*).

In Kenya Colony there are about nine elementary schools for European children; and Kenton College at Kijabe prepares boys for the public schools of England.

The Church of England School at Limoru and the Convent School at Nairobi are excellent European girls' schools. There are schools for Indians at Nairobi, Kisumu, Mombasa and elsewhere. The African natives have over 1,100 Government and Mission Schools. In 1926 a native school of hygiene, agriculture and industry was established, following the report of the Phelps-Stokes Commission on Education in East Africa.

In the British West Indies and Guiana the prevailing system of elementary education is that of grants-in-aid. Free, unsectarian Government schools only exist to a limited extent. In Barbados, Codrington College is affiliated to the University of Durham and the degrees of the University may be obtained. In Jamaica, Antigua, Barbados, Trinidad and British Guiana there are considerable facilities for higher education, and good colleges, notably Harrison College for

boys and Queen's College for girls in Barbados, the Jamaica College at Hope (boys), Wolmer's Schools in Kingston (boys and girls) and Munro and Dickenson's Schools (boys and girls) in the Santa Cruz Mountains in Jamaica, the Queen's Royal, St. Mary's and Naparima College in Trinidad, Queen's College in British Guiana, and St. Mary's College in St. Lucia. In the Leeward Islands an Act of 1890 makes education compulsory for all children from 5 to 12 years of age, and makes it free also for such as cannot pay fees. In Jamaica education is compulsory in certain townships. Provision is also made for the training of teachers. The Mico College (Jamaica) for training elementary school teachers, receives students from some other West Indian Colonies (the Leeward Islands and British Guiana). There are Public Libraries in the principal Colonies, and good newspapers.*

* (For special education see under such headings as *Navy, Army, Mercantile Marine, Agriculture, Indian Civil Service, etc.* For individual Universities and Public Schools, see *Gazetteer of Cities and Towns.*)

BRISTOL
University Memorial Tower
from Park Street



From copyright photograph by
Harvey Barton & Son Ltd., Bristol

EGYPT

AND THE

BRITISH SUDAN

ALTHOUGH Egypt was declared an independent Kingdom in March, 1922, England's great work in the Valley of the Lower Nile has not been lost to the Empire, because this new Kingdom now forms a self-governing and independent member of the British League. The Protectorate over Egypt, declared in November, 1914, was abolished, and in its place came the more dignified Treaty of *Permanent Alliance* with the British Empire. By the terms of this Convention the British Government is represented in Egypt by a High Commissioner, who is entitled to an exceptional position, and to take precedence over the Diplomatic Representatives of other countries. Great Britain is entitled to maintain Imperial troops in any part of Egypt, and to have free access through the country. Egypt is debarred from entering into any political agreement without the consent of the British Government through the High Commissioner. Notwithstanding these necessary safeguards to Imperial interests and communications with India, Australia, New Zealand, and the Far East, Egypt has become a separate and independent nation, ruled by her own King and Parliament. This being so, its inclusion in the Encyclopedia of The British Empire is warranted only by (1) the great work carried out by England in the Nile Valley, (2) the Treaty of *Permanent Alliance* with the British Empire, (3) the absence of an independent foreign policy, and (4) the status of the adjoining territory of the Sudan.

The total area of Upper and Lower Egypt—the two great sections into which the land of the Pharaohs has been divided from time immemorial—is approximately 350,000 square miles, but much of this territory is occupied by the Libyan Desert, the region lying to the west of the Nile and the Arabian Desert, between the Nile and the Red Sea, together with the Sinai Peninsula, all of which are of little economic value. The fertile and developed area, is, however, only about 13,000 square miles in extent, and consists of the Nile Valley and the Delta. The water-surface of the life-giving Nile, lakes, and marshes within Egyptian territory is approximately 1,140 square miles, and the population about 14 millions, which increases at the average annual rate of 1.60 per cent.

The population consists of about 12 million Mohammedans, 900,000 Copts, 40,000 Jews, and under a million Sudanese, Bedouins and other races, of which 900 per 1,000 are illiterate. The capital, Cairo, has 1,060,000 inhabitants; Alexandria, the chief port, 570,000; Port Said, Ismailia, and the Canal Zone, 134,000; and Suez, about 40,000. Before proceeding with the general description of the country and its people, the succession of historical events, often of an international character, which led to the British Protectorate, and finally to independence within the Empire, must be followed here in some detail to enable a clear understanding to be obtained of the history and economic status of modern Egypt.

THE LAND OF THE PHARAOHS.

No attempt will be made here to even outline the early history of Egypt, recorded by Manetho, the High Priest of Isis, who lived about 300 years before the birth of Christ. In his writings, Manetho gives the history of Ancient Egypt for many thousand years. Menes was the founder of the first thirty dynasties, and the monuments and hieroglyphics which have been discovered have enabled a more or less complete record to be obtained of these early dates of civilisation. Although of considerable interest to the historian, the events which took place in Egypt and Palestine (*q.v.*) before the Christian era have so little bearing on modern history, that the necessary space cannot be devoted here to an adequate study of them. There are many important and voluminous works devoted to the ancient history of Egypt, which make interesting reading, and are highly instructive, but they deal with centuries long before the dawn of British history, and must therefore be left to students of the rise and fall of ancient empires.

The Arabs conquered Egypt in A.D. 639, and, under the Mohammedan Rulers, the country completely changed. In the year 1250 A.D. the Mamelukes, or slaves from the Caucasus, who had been aided in their rise to power by Saladin, seized the reins of government and held them until subdued by the Turkish Sultan, Selim, in 1520. From this date until the dawn of the 18th century the defeated Mameluke Chiefs kept the whole country in a state of continual disorder, eventually obtaining power when Turkey was hard pressed by Russia and Austria. In 1798, the French invaded Egypt, but were expelled by the British, and Turkey reasserted her power by treacherously murdering the Mameluke leaders. This act was carried into effect by Mohammed Ali Bey, then in command of the Turkish Forces in Egypt. This unscrupulous but enterprising officer then became the Pasha of the reconquered territory, afterwards consolidating and extending his dominions, until at last he excited the jealousy and fears of his master, the Sultan. It is at this period when the history of England in Egypt may be said to properly commence.

ENGLAND IN EGYPT.

Europe was face to face with a problem of the utmost complexity when Egypt became bankrupt in the days of Ismail Pasha. To pluck the primary cause of failure from the tangled roots of Oriental maladministration would be extremely difficult, because there was such a *battalion of causes* as to make exact definition well nigh impossible. However, before concentrating attention on the regeneration of Egypt, and the loss and recovery of the Sudan, the *raison d'être* must be given for the change of British policy from one of non-intervention to one of full control and responsibility, which necessitates focussing the lens for a brief space on events which took place far back in the nineteenth century, before the Arabi Revolt and the British occupation.

Previously to the advent of the war-lord, Mohammed Ali, Egypt had, for many years, been a province of Turkey, ruled by the Sultan through his appointed pashas, who, in turn, delegated a portion of their authority to Mameluke Beys; but Ali, "The Albanian," was of a different stamp from his predecessors and did not rest content with the Pashalic of Egypt, but extended his dominion south to Kordofan, east to Arabia and Syria, and then, turning on the Sultan himself, fought his way to the walls of Constantinople.

His fall was as rapid as his rise. In 1824 his land and sea forces were more powerful than those of the Sultan, but after Navarino and the fall of Acre to the British, Turkish and Austrian fleets, which was followed by the loss of Syria in 1841, Mohammed Ali's power was gone. Even after these disasters, however, he succeeded in wringing from the Sultan a firman granting him and his house for ever the pashalic of Egypt, subject to the payment of an annual tribute in coin. Furthermore, by the firman of 1841 the Egyptian Army was not to exceed a given strength, taxes were to be collected in the Sultan's name, and the coinage was to remain Turkish. Although nominally the power of Mohammed Ali was limited, he remained in reality the supreme ruler of Egypt until his death, and thus began the partial separation of Egypt from Turkey.

The next two rulers were Abbas Pasha, a cruel despot, and Said Pasha, in whose reign was commenced the cutting of the Suez Canal. About this period little need be said



WHERE EAST MEETS WEST
A Street in Port Said

Photo, Underwood

here, as these reigns were peaceful, and although the lot of the fellah, or Egyptian peasant, was generally a hard one, especially in Said's time, owing to the forced labour on the Suez Canal works, the financial position of Egypt, so far as its foreign debts were concerned, was fairly sound; consequently this period bears little relation to subsequent events. The external debt then amounted to only $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions sterling, whereas in 1879—sixteen years later—at the time of the fall of Ismail Pasha, it had grown to the then enormous figure of over 100 millions sterling, and this, with an estimated revenue of only 9 millions a year. It was in this brief period of prodigality that Egypt sowed the seeds of national calamity and financial ruin, from which she was only extricated with difficulty by the change of British policy from one of unsupported advice to one of control.

Although Sir Samuel Baker and Major-General Charles Gordon had established the authority of the Khedive far south in the Equatorial Province of the Sudan (the latter being Governor-General from 1877 to 1879), and all the intervening country was under Egyptian dominion, it was not by foreign conquest that Egypt was brought to a state of bankruptcy, but as a result of useless expenditure in Egypt itself, chaotic and corrupt administration, and the attempt of Ismail Pasha, the fourth Khedive, to accomplish the impossible.* He raised loan after loan, endeavouring at times to pay Peter with a portion of the money borrowed from Paul, with the object of instituting in Egypt all the modern and scientific improvements he had seen or heard of in the most advanced European countries. He tried by lavish and mostly useless expenditure to convert Egypt from a backward Eastern State to an up-to-date Western nation, all in the course of a few years. Then, finding out, when it was too late, the impossibility of accomplishing this, he strove by various political manœuvres, of which he was a master hand, to play one creditor against another, and so gain time for his cruel tax-gatherers to extract, with the help of the courbash and an army of moneylenders, sufficient revenue to meet the immediate demands of his

creditors and so postpone all pretext for foreign intervention.

Not only in the imposition of numerous, ill-timed and often *twice collected* taxes did Ismail Pasha and his ministers harass the fellaheen of Egypt—for there was one tax as well as one law for the favoured class, and quite different ones for the peasantry,—but he also made himself proprietor of much of the best agricultural land of the country, his estates covering many hundreds of thousands of acres.† These he exploited with compulsory labour.

Despotic rule alone is possible in Eastern countries, where the people have been from time immemorial accustomed to consider their lives, their property, and, in fact, everything they possess as belonging to their ruler, but to be permanent and peaceful such despotism must be relieved by benevolence, occasional munificence, and a somewhat ostentatious sympathy with any special affliction with which the people may be visited; and, moreover, it is necessary that the power of such a ruler should never be undermined or challenged with impunity.

Ismail Pasha appeared to disregard all these commonplace facts of Eastern rule. The taxes were collected relentlessly, epidemic diseases went uncared for, he was surrounded by a Turkish element which had little sympathy with the Egyptian population, he placed himself in a position to be reproved by foreign Powers, and the Egyptian Army, the only safeguard for a ruler in such circumstances, was undisciplined and discontented owing to a variety of grievances, all more or less real. The pay of the men was often months, and sometimes years, in arrears; they were forced to remain silent witnesses of the cruel methods of tax-collecting and oppression among their relations and friends, knowing that the money so extorted was being expended lavishly and irresponsibly by a corrupt and dissolute army of officials, while their own pay was getting more and more in arrears, and there was a total absence of military and civil justice. The Egyptian officers were discontented with the preference shown to their Turkish and Circassian comrades,

* The reference above to Ismail Pasha as the fourth Khedive is merely for convenience. Strictly speaking, the title of Khedive was not granted by the Sultan until 1867, and not to Mohammed Ali.

† "One-fifth of the arable land of the country."—Lord Cromer in *Modern Egypt*.

whose overbearing habits generated bitter hatred.*

The internal administration of both Egypt and the Sudan, from the highest Turkish officer to the lowest native civil servant and local policeman, was a chaotic sea of corruption and intrigue. Every official held office by the good will of the Sultan and his ministers, who were the subjects of continued petty place-seeking intrigue. Among the Government servants, high and low alike, the very precarious nature of their tenure of office was conducive to corruption. The aim of nearly all was to extort from the fellaheen, by any and every means at their command, sufficient in money and kind readily to supply the incessant demands from Cairo and leave a balance in hand for quickly enriching themselves.

The financial position of Egypt had gone from bad to worse. In March, 1876, Mr. Cave reported on the finances, and clearly showed the chaotic state of the whole fabric of Government and the bankrupt position of the country. In the following April the Khedive suspended payment of Treasury Bills. Previously to this, however, the suggestion had been made to form a National

Bank of Egypt under the control of three Europeans, but, although Great Britain, which was followed by France, was one of Egypt's largest creditors, the feeling was so strong against interference in the internal affairs of that country, that Lord Derby declined to appoint a British commissioner, and nothing came of the suggestion, although

it was strongly supported by France and several other Powers. Later in the same year the Khedive issued a decree inaugurating an "International Commission of the Public Debt" to represent the bondholders.

The French, Austrian and Italian Governments each nominated a Commissioner, but *again England declined to interfere*. The financial condition of Egypt, however, became the cause of such grave anxiety in the United Kingdom that Lord Goschen was eventually sent on a mission of enquiry. It is unnecessary to give here the recommendations of Lord Goschen and M. Joubert, who represented French financial interests, for the importance and subsequent

value of the Mission lies more in the recommendations then made and afterwards adopted for the better administration of the country than in its actual financial



Zodiac

Photo by kind permission of G. S. Frowbridge

AN ICED DRINK VENDOR, ALEXANDRIA

* Ismail Pasha first obtained from the Sultan recognition of the right of primogeniture, which eventually made his son, Teufik, Khedive instead of Halim Pasha (Ismail's uncle). For this concession, Ismail agreed to raise the tribute to Turkey from £376,000 to £675,000 per annum; and in 1867 he obtained by firman the hereditary title of Khedive, and was given fuller powers of internal administration. In 1872 another firman enabled him to contract foreign loans without the consent of the Sublime Porte, and extended his powers until they were almost full sovereign rights. This was the actual beginning of the decline and fall of Ismail Pasha.

arrangements. As was afterwards proved, so chaotic was the whole fabric of government, and so impossible were the public accounts, fiscal system, and method of appointing and capability of the officials, that no basis existed for a permanently successful financial settlement. The Goschen Mission, however, resulted in the appointment of European officials with powers larger than those hitherto possessed by foreigners in the Egyptian service.

This was the beginning of European control. It was found impossible to establish any satisfactory system which would insure the rightful claims of bondholders being regularly met, and at the same time minimise, as far as possible, the hardships endured by the fellaheen—a point which successive British Governments had ever in view—without placing the fiscal administration under European control and exerting an influence over the actions of the Khedive and the Egyptian Government.

The first act of the new régime was the establishment in Cairo of a Public Debt Office, known as the Caisse de la Dette Publique, with one British (Sir Evelyn Baring) and one French Controller. The position of this department in the political world was left somewhat vague. The controllers, who were to study the interests of the bond-holders, were nominated by their respective Governments, and certain of the revenues of Egypt were assigned to the Caisse de la Dette to pay the interest and Sinking Fund, but the personality of the controllers, and the support they received from their Governments, gave them considerable power of influence over the Khedive, the central administration, and the disposition of the revenues of Egypt.

In 1878 a commission of inquiry into the fiscal administration of Egypt was appointed. The corrupt and muddled state of the whole machinery of government clearly revealed by the reports of this Commission led to the substitution of the control for a Ministry composed of Europeans and Egyptians. The portfolio of finance was given to Sir Charles Rivers Wilson, and that of Public Works to M. de Blignières; Nubar Pasha went to the Department of Foreign Affairs, and Riaz

Pasha to that of the Interior. By this means Europeans not only were invested with diplomatic and financial influence, but also became Ministers of the Khedive with administrative powers; but their task was indeed a difficult one, for the whole administration of Egypt and the Sudan violated every principle of good government, justice and commercial prosperity.

No financial settlement was within the range of possibility without the complete reorganisation of all the departments of State, the judicial service, the civil service, the military and the police. To complicate matters further, the Khedive, Ismail, was continually intriguing against his ministers and endeavouring by subtlety to throw off European control. The people of Egypt were being taught that, if the Khedive triumphed over the Powers, the foreign debts of the country would be cancelled and the taxation reduced; at the same time the Military Party were spreading the seeds of revolution among the troops, and religious hatred was being worked to fever heat.*

There were other special difficulties. The payments on the enormous foreign debt taxed the resources of the country to the utmost, and the failure of the Nile flood—although of frequent occurrence in past years, no preparation had been made to minimise the consequences—resulted in a considerable decrease in the revenue, both in this and the following year. Lord Vivian, at that time British Diplomatic Agent and Consul-General in Egypt, when writing of the reduction of revenue in relation to the deferred payment of the Sinking Fund and the interest on the Unified debt, remarked that, "these gloomy returns speak for themselves; they show the financial position of the country is as bad as it can well be."†

The life of the Nubar Pasha or Egyptian-European Ministry was of short duration, although strongly supported by both the British and French Governments. The Khedive was ill-disposed to the limitations of his power, and intrigued continually to cause its overthrow. At this important juncture Lord Vivian, the British Agent, and Sir Rivers Wilson, the Minister of Finance, were at variance with each other

* In this year (1878) the Treaty of Berlin was signed, which settled so many of England's Colonial difficulties.

† Earl Cromer: *Modern Egypt*, p. 65, Vol. I.



A Beggar Girl

A Water Carrier

An Arab Girl of the Harem

EGYPTIAN TYPES

over the system best adopted. The former believed in recognising the influence of Ismail Pasha, and supporting, while at the same time controlling his actions, but Sir Rivers Wilson believed in reducing the Khedive to a mere figurehead—which, in the light of subsequent events, proved the impossibility of destroying at one fell blow the personal power which centres round an Eastern sovereign.

These internal dissensions were doing a great deal of harm, as Ismail Pasha was taking advantage of them. Lord Vivian was shortly afterwards succeeded by Sir Frank Lascelles, who was instructed to support the

policy of Sir Rivers Wilson. In the meantime Ismail Pasha had effected a *coup d'état* by intriguing against Nubar Pasha and forcing him to resign. The Consuls-General of the Powers were in a dilemma. They must either insist upon the Khedive retaining Nubar Pasha, in which event he professed himself unable to prevent the recurrence of disturbances which had taken place of late, or else they must give way. This they did, and Nubar resigned.*

While these events had been taking place, the Commission of inquiry had been preparing a scheme for the settlement of the financial difficulties, and in April 1879 the

* On 18th February, 1879, Nubar Pasha and Sir Rivers Wilson were assaulted by a crowd of military officers, and the following day the Ministry resigned.

first report was presented. It was virtually a declaration of the bankruptcy of Egypt, which it was averred had commenced in 1876 when Ismail Pasha had suspended payment of the Treasury Bills. A few days previously to the signing of this report, the Khedive dismissed the European Ministers and commissioned Sherif Pasha to form a new native Ministry.

This upset the whole scheme for a complete reorganisation of the Egyptian administration, and as good finance depends entirely upon able administration, the recommendations of the Commissioners were useless, and they tendered their resignations to the Khedive, which were accepted with alacrity, at it was Ismail's plan to throw off completely European control. These events jeopardised the position of the foreign bondholders and evoked a veritable storm of indignation and protest in France and England.

The dismissal of the European Ministers was preceded by the first slight disturbance among the military, which gave Ismail Pasha the excuse he needed for this momentous act. The Khedive then proceeded, with the assistance of the Chamber of Notables, to prepare a scheme of financial settlement, but this was considered quite impracticable by all the European authorities in the country. He overestimated the revenue, and proposed to reduce the rate of interest on the Unified Debt from 6 to 5 per cent. Furthermore, it was apparent from the first that this scheme was put forward merely with the object of gaining time, as the revenue estimated could only have been raised by fearfully harsh measures, or, as was more probably intended, by reverting to the old method of collecting the taxes in advance, and so merely delaying the inevitable collapse, in the hope that political events in Europe might take a turn favourable to the Khedive's ultimate object of throwing off European control.

The Commissioners of the Debt considering the action of the Khedive contrary to international engagements, commenced an action against the Government in the Mixed Tribunal.

Lord Cromer, in his authoritative history of *Modern Egypt*, expresses the opinion that when the Khedive dismissed his European Ministers he was well aware of the serious

nature of the step he had taken. His first intention was to adopt a defiant attitude. It was evidently with this object in view that he obtained an oath from the superior officers of the army pledging themselves to defend himself and his family against all enemies.

A dispatch from Lord Salisbury, politely worded, but unmistakable in its intimation of further action unless new European Ministers were appointed, was communicated to the Khedive towards the end of April, but Ismail Pasha relied upon the time-honoured political basis of the foreign policy of Eastern countries—the balance of jealousies,—which all the world over is second only as a diplomatic arm to supreme sea or land forces, or the balance of power. The Khedive maintained a defiant attitude, notwithstanding that disaffection was manifest in all ranks of his army, the country was bankrupt, and the fellahs groaning under an impossible burden of taxation. He refused either to reinstate the old European Ministers, which, in view of their summary dismissal, would scarcely have been wise, or to appoint others in their place.

Sir Frank Lascelles, the British Agent, was instructed by Lord Salisbury, in the following June, privately to advise the Khedive to abdicate, in which event both the British and French Governments would act together in obtaining for him a suitable civil list pension and the accession of his son, Prince Teufik.

The reason given for this action by the two Governments may be briefly stated in a few lines. (1) That Ismail Pasha had never accepted the necessary limitation of his power advised by the International Commission in virtue of the financial position and general misgovernment of Egypt, which, as Oriental precedent clearly indicated, would, if continued, plunge the country into uproar and ruin, a state of affairs that would be highly dangerous to Europeans resident in the country, and prejudicial to the large foreign financial interest. (2) The geographical position of Egypt made abandonment to its fate impossible from a British point of view, although, as Lord Salisbury stated, if past history, financial interests, and geographical position had not compelled the Powers to assume responsibilities for which they had not the least desire, it would have

been the wisest course at this climax to relinquish all concern in the international affairs of Egypt.

Ismail Pasha appealed to the Sultan for support, but Europe was now combined against him, and diplomatic pressure was brought to bear on the Sultan, with the result that Ismail Pasha was deposed by his suzerain, and on 26th June, 1879, Prince Teufik, who had been Prime Minister in succession to Nubar Pasha, became Khedive of Egypt.

Ismail Pasha sowed the seeds of ruin and disorder, and his son Teufik reaped the abundant harvest.*

Egypt, just before the Arabi Revolt, was in a state of mental as well as political turmoil. Fanaticism was showing itself ominously in many parts of the country. Europeans were often insulted in the streets of Alexandria and Cairo. The influence of the Khedivate had been almost destroyed by the speedy overthrow of Ismail Pasha. The Turks and Circassians despised the Arabs, and both were antagonistic to any form of European administrative control.

International rivalry added its quota to the already sufficiently complicated Egyptian puzzle, making the settlement of what form European assistance should take well nigh impossible. France was jealous of England, and England's position in Asia made it impossible for her to allow any foreign power to become predominant in Egypt. It was also to the interests of Germany quietly and diplomatically to prevent a *rapprochement* between France and Great Britain, and while the two were engaged in Egypt, to prepare for the establishment of a German Colony in East Africa. Russia held a watching brief for Turkey, who imagined her suzerain power in danger, and Russia had everything to gain by posing for the time being as the guardian angel of Turkey. Italy was anxious to obtain colonial interests in North-East Africa. Public opinion in France and England was clamouring loudly for a financial settlement. Millions of French and English capital was at stake. The Egyptian Army was suffering from "swollen head," and was ripe for revolution. Religious fanaticism was being worked to a pitch of frenzy, and the newly-forged machinery of government was creaking ominously on its uphill path.

* Ismail Pasha left the country, going first to Italy, and then to Turkey, where he died.

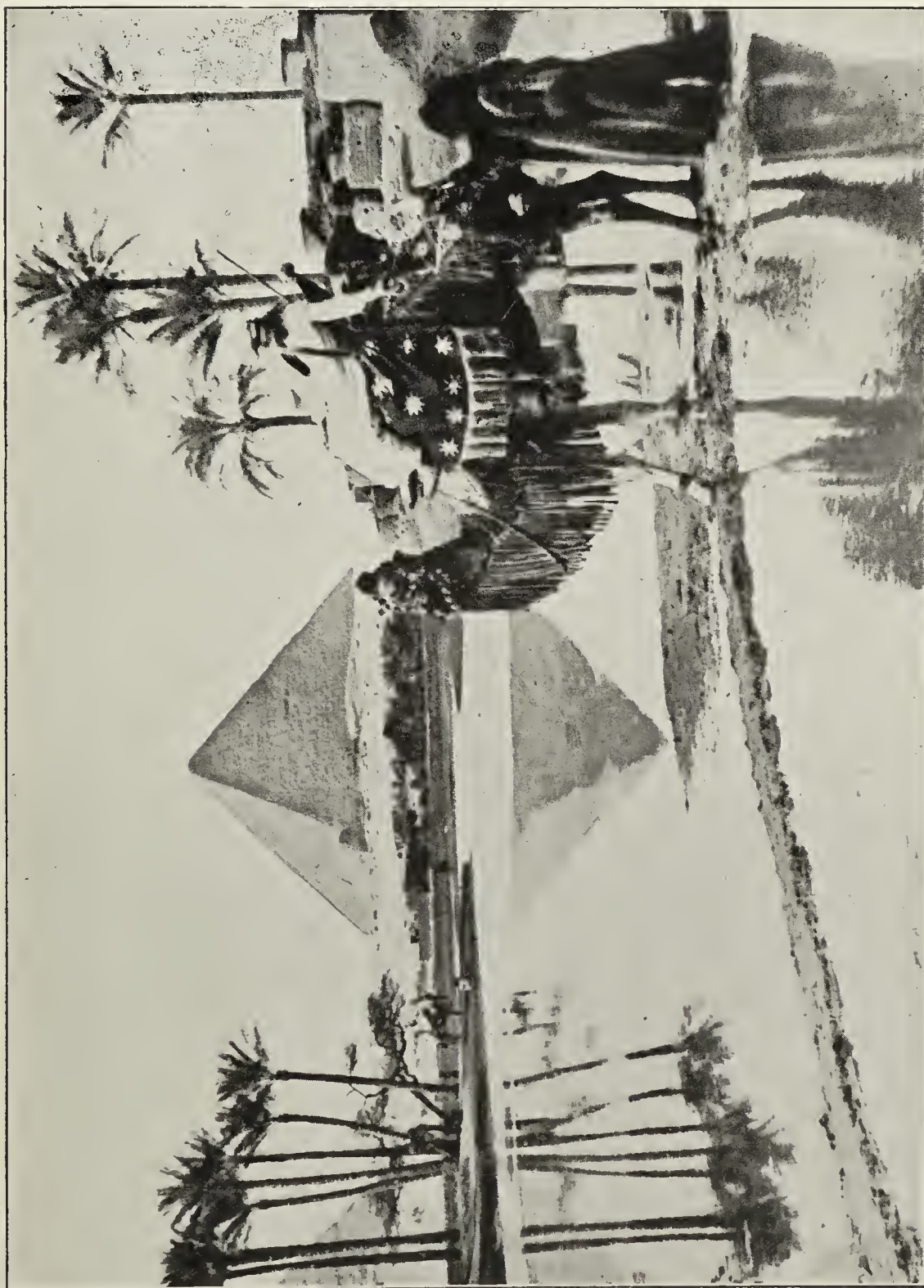
Such was the state of affairs in August, 1879, when the fifth Khedive, Teufik, called on Sherif Pasha to form a ministry. Sherif prepared a plan for a constitution on European lines, which, although well-intentioned, was quite unsuitable to Egypt, so backward was the political state of the country. The Khedive refused to sanction the formation of a constitution on the lines suggested, and Sherif Pasha resigned.

The Dual control was again instituted by England and France, Sir Evelyn Baring (Lord Cromer) and M. de Blignières being appointed Controllers-General with extended jurisdiction of investigation and influence, but without actual administrative powers.

At this point it is necessary to revert back to the firman issued by the Sultan of Turkey deposing the Khedive Ismail in June, 1879. At the same time as the issue of this, the firman of investiture of 1873 was repealed, and it was only after strong diplomatic pressure had been brought to bear on the Sultan that he had consented to make known the terms of the new firman to the Ambassadors of England and France previously to its dispatch to Egypt, where it was being anxiously awaited. The Sultan desired to alter the right of succession, but this was successfully opposed by both Governments. Among other changes which the Sultan strove hard to effect was the prevention of the Khedive from making commercial treaties, which was objected to by France who won the day, but the right to contract loans was withdrawn, and the strength of the army limited to 18,000 men.

The firman incident thus settled, there remained only the formation of the new ministry. Riaz Pasha was recalled to Egypt and formed a Government, himself becoming President of the Council of Ministers, but the Khedive retained the right of acting as President when he considered it necessary to do so.

In 1880 a Commission of Liquidation was appointed to arrange a definite settlement of the debts of Egypt, to evolve a plan for the reorganisation of the financial system, and to apportion the revenue between the charges on the debts and the cost of Egyptian administration. A Khedivial decree was issued appointing this Commission, and the interested Powers agreed to abide by its



Photo, Underwood

THE MIRRORED PYRAMID (Third)
During the period of Nile inundations



CAIRO, FROM THE CITADEL

decisions. Many irksome taxes and abuses of power were remedied, among which must be mentioned the repeal of the law of Moukabala, and the granting of a small percentage of interest to those who had already paid this curious and ill-conceived "commutation of land taxation."

In June, 1880, Sir Evelyn Baring left Egypt to become Financial Member of the Viceroy's Council in India, and Sir Auckland Colvin was appointed Controller in his stead. Sir Edward Malet had been appointed British Agent and Consul-General in Cairo in succession to Sir Frank Lascelles. Although apparently the machinery of government and the financial arrangements were slowly being steered into calm waters, the climax was really fast approaching.

It is unnecessary to follow here the intricate

sarily loose system of government was beginning to work smoothly when the final crash came.

THE ARABI REVOLT.

The second mutiny of the Egyptian Army was undoubtedly the result of real grievances neglected while the civil administration was being steadily improved. Large numbers of Egyptian officers had been placed on

financial settlement. This would occupy a complete volume in itself. Sufficient to say that just under half the total revenue estimated at £E8,362,000 was apportioned to the Caisse de la Dette to meet the charges on the debts, many of which had been "Unified." Affairs were beginning to improve in Egypt, and the neces-



ONE OF THE MAIN THOROUGHFARES OF THE EUROPEAN QUARTER OF CAIRO

Photos, G. S. Troubridge

half-pay, but few Turkish or Circassian, who had, irrespective of their qualifications, been promoted over the heads of Egyptian officers. The pay of all ranks was too low, and mostly in arrears, and the Khedive was surrounded by a Turkish element which created jealousy among the Egyptians, who were often dismissed without Court Martial or legal inquiry.

Colonel Ahmed Arabi, commanding the 4th Regiment of Infantry, became the leader of the Military Party; he was, however, joined by Colonel Ali Bey Fehmi, of the 1st Regiment. A petition, got up among the Egyptian officers, was presented by the two colonels to Riaz Pasha. This demanded the removal of the Minister of War, Osman Pasha Rifki, and the institution of an inquiry into the qualifications of the Turkish officers recently promoted. Several weeks elapsed,



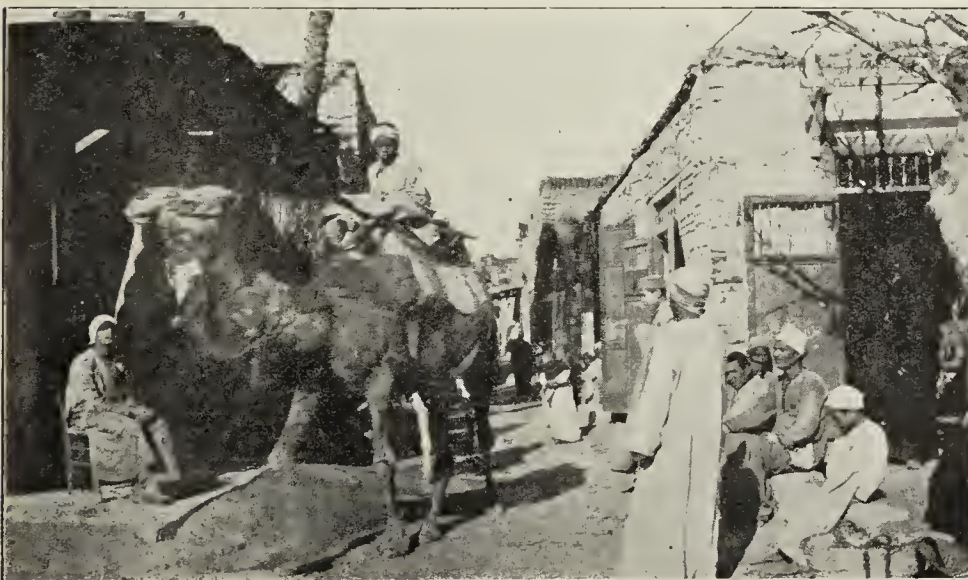
ON THE OUTSKIRTS OF THE CITY

and nothing was done either to meet or to deny the demands of the officers. Then the Khedive, who viewed the petition with disfavour, caused Riaz Pasha to call a special secret meeting of the Council of Ministers, over which he presided. It was there decided to summon the two Colonels to the Ministry of War on some pretext, and try them by a secret Court Martial.

The decision of the Ministers became immediately known to the officers, who arranged that in the event of their leaders not re-

turning from the Ministry of War in two hours, the regiments would march to the Ministry and release them if they had been arrested. Messages were sent to regiments stationed outside the city to join forces if called upon.*

* The fact that the decision of the secret Cabinet meeting should have leaked out so quickly is not surprising. Few political secrets are kept in Eastern countries for many hours.



"MEAN" STREET, CAIRO

Photos, G. S. Trowbridge



THE MOSQUE OF MOHAMMED ALI, CAIRO

The Colonels were arrested on presenting themselves at the Ministry of War, and the Court Martial was immediately commenced, but before it could be concluded the regiments arrived, entered the Ministry, and after wrecking a portion of the building and hustling the Minister of War, released the Colonels, who thereupon marched at the head of their troops and demanded from the Khedive the instant dismissal of the Minister of War.

The Khedive was surrounded by Court Officials and Ministers, but finding that no reliance could be placed in any of the regiments near Cairo, he was compelled to give way, and Mahommed Pasha Sami was appointed Minister of War. The mutineers cheered the Khedive, and then dispersed, but the two Colonels obtained an audience and renewed their assurances of fidelity.

The curtain then fell on the second scene of the military revolt. The third was, however, attended with more serious consequences.

A few comments must be made here on these momentous events in Egyptian modern history. Up to this period the discontent in the Egyptian Army was more or less brought about by real grievances, which could have been remedied without loss of prestige by the Khedive or his Ministers if proper attention had been paid to this important service before dissatisfaction ripened into open mutiny. Considering also that not until the last phase had been reached did either Arabi or his followers show any signs of attempting the overthrow of the Khedive — aiming first at obtaining immediate remedy

*Photos, G. S. Troubridge*

INTERIOR OF THE MUSEUM, CAIRO

Contains a wonderful collection of antiquities, including the gold ornaments and jewels from the tomb of Tutankamen

for their grievances, and in the second act of mutiny only at their own safety,—it forms an interesting and somewhat rare example.*

The action of the Khedive in attempting to effect the arrest of the Colonels by subterfuge was dishonest, and, without sufficient military force to support his action, it was foolish in the extreme. The periods which elapsed between the three stages in the mutiny gave ample time for the Khedive to rally to his side sufficient loyal troops to have prevented any further disturbances by the mutineers, or, failing this, he could have made the best terms possible with Arabi before being forced to do so with the consequent loss of prestige. Instead, however, he elected to add fuel to the fire by sowing the seeds of mistrust in his actions, which produced fear among the rebellious officers, and so forced them to extreme measures. Another point worthy of notice is the sense of undue importance which the success of their efforts gave the mutineers. They found out that theirs was the real power, and that by using it they could obtain almost anything they fancied.

It was against Riaz Pasha, who had refused their first petition, that the mutineers entertained the greatest hatred, and Arabi endeavoured by intrigue to effect his overthrow. During the next few months several acts of insubordination took place. The Minister of War was again dismissed, and the Khedive appointed his brother-in-law, Daoud Pasha. A Commission to inquire into the grievances of the Egyptian officers was appointed, with Colonel Arabi (Bey) as a member; but believing himself in danger of assassination or arrest he went for protection to the house of the other Colonels on the night of 8th September, and there planned the third mutiny.

On the following morning the 3rd Infantry Regiment, which had been ordered to Alexandria to get it away from the capital, broke into open rebellion, and marched, nearly 3,000 strong, with eighteen guns, to the Abadin Palace. The Khedive, who was at the Ismailia Palace, some little distance away, sent for Sir Auckland Colvin. Having in mind similar events in India in past time, this distinguished member of the Indian Civil

Service advised the Khedive to place himself at the head of the military police and two regiments which were believed to be loyal, and personally arrest Arabi and the leaders of the revolt. Finding, however, that the loyalty of any of the troops could not be relied upon, the Khedive considered it dangerous to attempt such drastic action, and after meeting Arabi in front of the Abadin Palace, left the negotiations to the able and courageous Sir Auckland Colvin.

The Khedive gave way so far as to appoint Sherif Pasha President of the Council in the place of Riaz Pasha, and order was again restored.

The subsequent events, which took place during 1881 and the first few months of 1882, are of little consequence, and therefore need not be followed here. Two Turkish Envoys were sent to Egypt by the Sultan, but after a brief stay left at the request of the Powers. Although Sherif Pasha was nominally President of the Council, Arabi, who was supported by the Army, was the real power. The people were discontented, and religious fanaticism was being aroused against Europeans.

It was in December, 1881, that both the British and French Governments agreed that something must be done to settle the affairs of Egypt, which were rapidly going from bad to worse. In January of the following year, Lord Granville and M. Gambetta issued a "joint note" assuring the Khedive of the support of the two Powers, and hinting at armed intervention if necessary. This not only caused a political explosion in Europe, because hitherto the part played by these Powers, and the declared policy of Great Britain, had been "financial," and merely directed to the reorganisation of the Egyptian administration, with peaceful intervention only so far as necessary to control the financial situation, but it also had the reverse effect to that desired. It caused many loyal Egyptians to pause and consider whether it was, after all, not best to support the Arabist policy of "Egypt for the Egyptians," as the joint note appeared to indicate that the Khedive was to be brought more closely under Anglo-French control. Lord Cromer, commenting upon the effect of the joint note, says: "From the moment the

* True, some of the acts of Arabi cast great doubt on his loyalty to the Khedive, but there is little to show that he wished for the overthrow of Teufik.

joint note was issued, foreign intervention became an almost unavoidable necessity."

The events of the next five months need not be reviewed in detail. A split occurred between Sherif Pasha and the Chamber of Notables over the framing of the Budget, in which Sherif was supported by the European Controllers, and the Chamber of Notables by the Military Party. Again the Khedive was forced to change his Government. Mahommed Pasha Sami, the Minister of War, was appointed President of the Council in the place of Sherif Pasha, and Arabi Bey became Minister of War. Thus the leaders of the Nationalist and Military Parties obtained the reins of Government, and only a spark was needed to explode the bomb.

Britain and France were at this time at variance over the measures which they considered should be taken to settle the anarchical state of affairs in Egypt. France (Gambetta) first favoured an Anglo-French military occupation, and Great Britain no occupation unless compelled, and then a Turkish one for a limited time. With a change of Ministry in Paris, French policy changed so far as to desire the deposition of the Khedive Teufik, but this was successfully opposed by the British Government, who saw in such an act only a further undermining of law and order.

The Arabist Ministry resigned in May, but were reinstated. In the same month the British and French Consuls-General demanded that Arabi should leave the country, and the Ministry again resigned, but were induced to return to office. Then commenced a series of remarkable trials by secret Court Martial of a large number of officers of the Egyptian Army accused of the attempted murder of Arabi. Forty were condemned to life-long exile in the Sudan, but the evidence was of such a flimsy character, and the trial so secret, that there is little doubt the whole affair was trumped-up with the object of ridding the army of officers likely to remain faithful to the Khedive, for Arabi's ambition had increased since the early days of the revolt. The Sultan intervened to prevent the execution of this unjust sentence, but the Khedive, acting on the advice of the British and French Governments, anticipated the Sultan's action and altered the sentences from exile in the Sudan to simple exile from Egypt.

This caused a breach between the Khedive and his Arabist Ministers, which rapidly became wider. Affairs in Cairo and Alexandria became so disquieting that an Anglo-French Squadron was dispatched, but France objected to the Porte being asked to co-operate, and this created mistrust of Anglo-French intentions in Egypt, with the result that public opinion was united against European interference, and the whole country was in a state of agitation.

The blow, so long deferred, was about to fall. The British and French Governments demanded the temporary exile of Arabi Bey, Ali Pasha Fehmi, and Abdul-al Pasha—the "three colonels."

The position of the Khedive was a difficult and dangerous one. His life was threatened if he did not immediately reinstate Arabi Bey as Minister of War, and he yielded. Cairo, Alexandria, and the whole of Egypt was now in the hands of the Arabists, and no other course was possible without Turkish or Anglo-French intervention by force of arms, and France opposed this measure.

It was now evident that Arabi would yield only to force from the outside, and this was soon to be exerted. So great was the agitation and fanatical hatred of Christians, that large numbers left the country. The British residents in Alexandria and Cairo demanded protection, and those of other nationalities followed suit. A conference of the Powers was arranged to meet at Constantinople, but Turkey refused to join, preferring to send two Commissioners to Egypt with instructions well calculated to appease whichever side obtained the ascendancy.

Political agitation burst into open riot in Alexandria on 11th June, when a Moslem mob cruelly massacred some forty or fifty Europeans. Among the injured was the British Consul. Murders occurred a few days later at Benha; and in the course of a week the whole country was plunged into rebellion and indescribable confusion. The lives of thousands of Christians were in danger and yet precious days were allowed to slip by owing to international disagreement. The Conference at Constantinople was still lingering, but nothing definite was settled. The inquiry instituted by Arabi into the Alexandria massacres was nothing more than a mock-trial, and the British Commissioner withdrew.



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

SUNSET ON THE NILE

While these events were taking place, batteries were being hastily erected at Alexandria with the object of driving off the British fleet. A remonstrance was addressed to the Sultan by the British Government, and the work ceased for a few weeks, but commenced again early in July, and Admiral Sir Beauchamp Seymour (Lord Alcester) was instructed, on 3rd July, that if any further work was carried out in the batteries he was to open fire and destroy them.

Arabi and the mutinous Egyptian army took up an entrenched position outside Alexandria. Lord Wolseley arrived on 13th August, and British troops were immediately dispatched to Egypt. Four weeks later the trenches at Tel-el-Kebir were stormed, and the Egyptian army completely routed. A cavalry force advanced at once to Cairo, which was occupied without fighting two days later, and Arabi and the leaders of the revolt surrendered.



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

A NILE VILLAGE, NEAR WADI HALFA

The French Government drew back at the eleventh hour, but acted with Great Britain for securing the safety of the Suez Canal. The Sultan asked for delay, but the military preparations at Alexandria were too threatening in character to admit of any delay. The Austrian and German Governments lent moral support to British action, and, as more guns were being mounted in the batteries, the British fleet opened fire at 7 a.m. on the morning of the 11th July. By shortly after 5 p.m. the batteries were silenced and the earthworks destroyed. On the following afternoon the garrison retreated after setting fire to the city.*

* The murder of several Europeans occurred at other places in Egypt.

THE REGENERATION OF EGYPT.

Two months had scarcely passed after the overthrow of the mutinous Egyptian army before Lord Dufferin, then British Ambassador at Constantinople, was instructed to proceed to Egypt on a special mission to investigate and report on the best means of restoring order and prosperity in the shortest space of time, as Her Majesty's Government desired to commence withdrawing the British troops at the earliest possible date.

Although pressed not only by the European residents in Egypt, but also by a large section of the British public, the Government steadfastly refused to proclaim a protectorate.

Alexandria after the bombardment, and also at



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

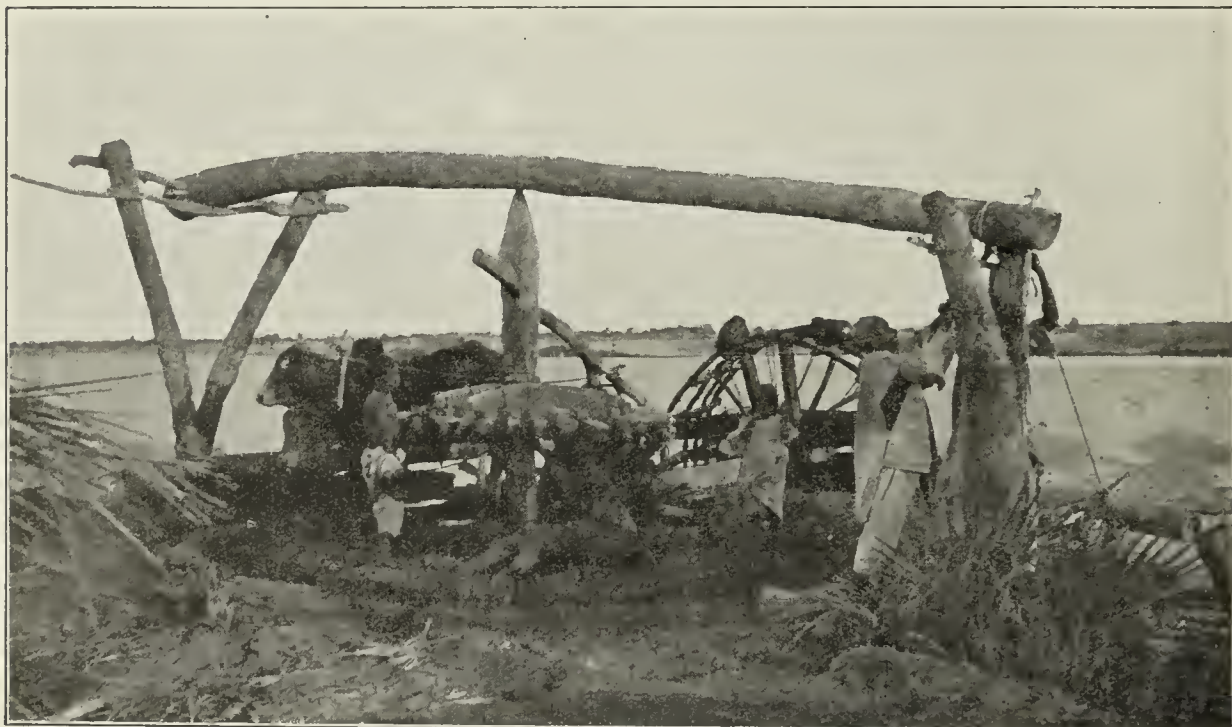
AN ARAB SHEIK

There is little doubt, however, that if this had been done, many of the difficulties afterwards encountered in unravelling the Egyptian puzzle would have been removed from the path, but, on the other hand, to have annexed Egypt then would have been a breach of faith with Europe which would scarcely have received adequate support from any quarter.

When Lord Dufferin arrived in Cairo (November, 1882), the trial of Arabi and the leading spirits of the mutiny was dragging out

not St. Helena, as so often has been the case with political prisoners, but beautiful Ceylon. Arabi was, however, allowed to return to Egypt in 1901. The other political prisoners were exiled to the interior, but many of the assassins who fired Alexandria and murdered Christians were either hanged or sentenced to long periods of penal servitude.

The Alexandria indemnities next occupied the attention of Lord Dufferin. An international commission was appointed early in January to settle claims for the destruction



PRIMITIVE IRRIGATION

Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

A Sakia, or Water Wheel, which is turned by oxen, and lifts the precious fluid from the Nile by a series of buckets on a wheel

a weary and prolonged existence, prejudicial in itself to the restoration of tranquility. He immediately took steps to bring the trial to a close. A judicial inquiry was instituted, and it quickly became apparent that rebellion was the only charge on which Arabi could be convicted. Many of the European residents and leading Egyptians considered that no leniency should be shown the mutineers, but Lord Dufferin arranged that Arabi, after pleading guilty to rebellion, should be sentenced to death, and that the sentence should at once be commuted to one of exile. The island chosen as the place of detention was

of property and goods caused by the burning of Alexandria. The delay in settling them had already caused much discontent.

The abolition of the Dual control was the next item on the political programme of Egypt. France, although she had refused to co-operate in suppressing the revolt and in the cost and responsibility incurred, strove to re-establish the Anglo-French control. In refusing to do this the British and Egyptian Governments were in accord, but although after much diplomatic discussion, England obtained a free hand France continued to hamper British action until the



THE TEMPLE OF PHILAE

Before its partial inundation by the Nile, when the height of the river was raised by the construction of the Assuan Dam

Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers



ASSUAN

Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

signing of the Anglo-French agreement in 1904.

Lord Dufferin's plan for the establishment of order out of chaos was undoubtedly a masterpiece of constructive statesmanship, but he evidently thought it better not fully to realise the corruptibility of the officials, the chaotic state of the whole machinery of government and the financial position of the country. He also under-estimated in his reports the time necessary to accomplish the reforms he advocated. Nevertheless many of his proposals have formed the foundation stones on which modern Egypt has been built.

THE CAPITULATIONS.

Something must be said here about the international restrictions which for many years bound Egyptian administration hand and foot, and delivered in a similar condition of helplessness British policy in Egypt to the tender mercies of European rivals.

Although the firman from the Sultan gave the Khedive Ismail Pasha almost sovereign powers so far as the internal administration of the country was concerned, and allowed certain conventions to be entered into with

foreign Powers without the consent of the Porte, there remained then, and to a certain limited extent there remain still, international obligations of Turkey which applied to Egypt as its dependency. Among these were the capitulations, a series of treaties and "privileges" granted by the Sultans, and later by the Khedives of Egypt, to Christians resident in Turkey, Egypt, and other portions of the Ottoman dominions.

The capitulations, some of which date from the twelfth to the sixteenth century, must be looked upon more in the light of concessions granted by successive Sultans and Khedives to the subjects of Christian States wishing to reside and trade in the Ottoman Empire.*

Had "protection" not been granted, Christians residing in Mohammedan countries would have been subject to continual persecution not only by the Moslem people but also by the officials. Furthermore, no Christian was allowed to reside in Turkish dominions, or to own property, unless protected or favoured in this way.†

The capitulations of Turkey were fewer in number and less complex than those of Egypt, as Turkey was ever slow to grant

* Similar arrangements are in vogue in China and other Eastern countries under native rule.

† The Capitulations were originally granted by the Sultans of Turkey more in the light of favours to despised infidels to enable them to trade in the Ottoman Dominions than as treaties with, or privileges granted to, equals. It was then quite unforeseen that in future years these "privileges granted to despised infidels" would have grown into such formidable documents of foreign rights as to be a continual menace to native rule.



IN OLD CAIRO

Photo, Donald McLeish

The turreted minarets of the Agha Mosque, which is known as the Blue Mosque, so called because of its interior decoration of exquisitely tinted tiles



THE MYSTERY OF THE AGES
The Brooding Sphinx and the Great Pyramid

Photo, Underwood



LOOKING OVER THE MOSLEM CEMETERY, CAIRO, EGYPT

Photo, Underwood



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
GENERAL GORDON'S STATUE, KHARTOUM

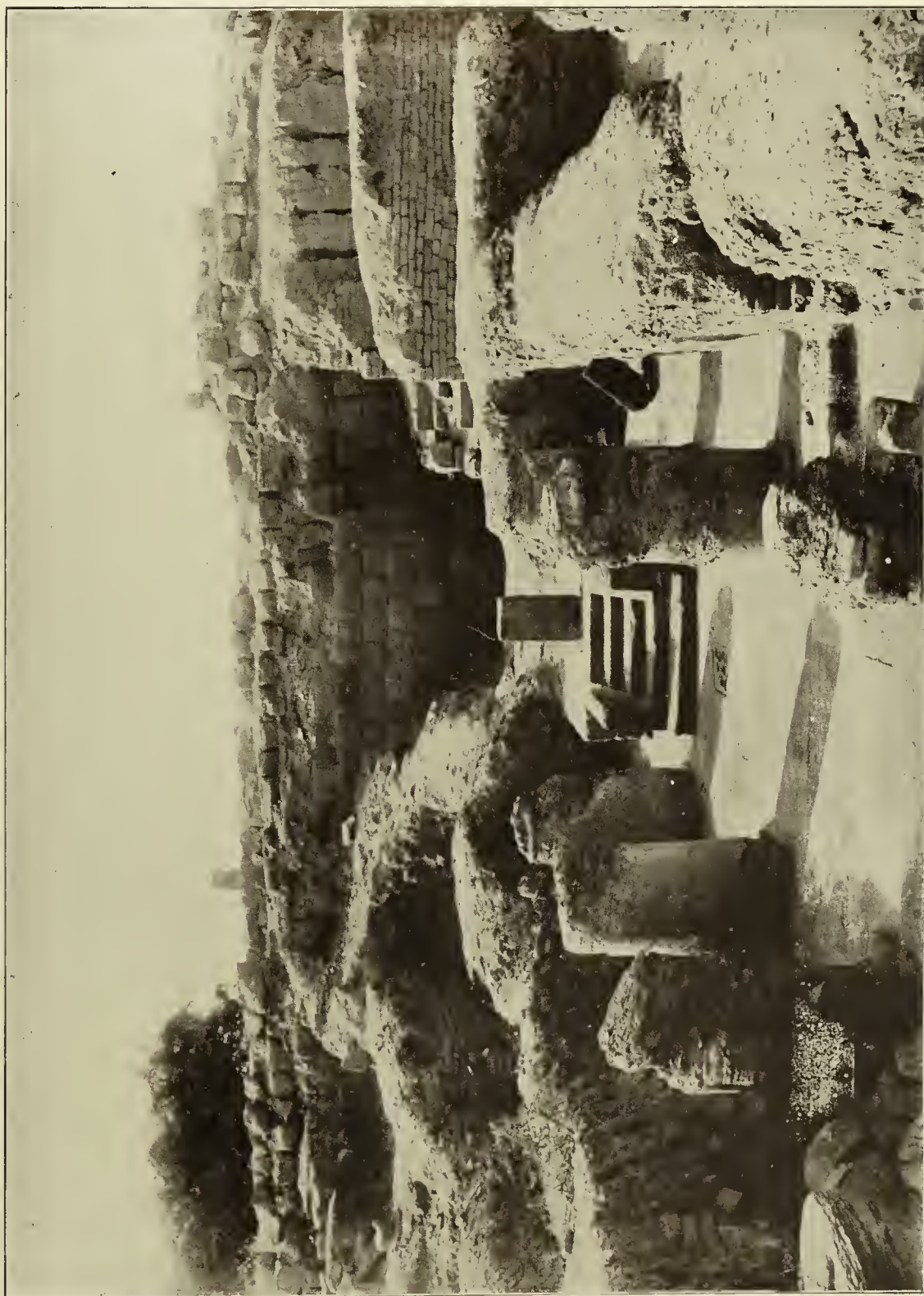


Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
GORDON'S ROSE TREE IN THE GROUNDS OF THE PALACE, KHARTOUM



THE PALACE, KHARTOUM, CAPITAL OF THE SUDAN
The residence of the governor-general

Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers



THE TEMPLE OF AMON AT MEROË

Meroë was the capital of Queen Candace. This temple was, however, built about three centuries before the Christian era



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
AN ARAB GIRL, OMDURMAN

privileges of any description to Christians, and had discouraged their residence in any part of the country except the ports. The capitulations of Turkey have more often assumed the form of treaties with foreign Powers covering all their "nationals," or subjects resident, whereas in Egypt, after its partial severance from Turkey, the shattered financial position and other considerations often caused the Khedive to issue personal letters of privilege not covered by special treaties.

Among the privileges granted by the capitulations the most important were, and in certain cases remained so up to the victorious conclusion of the Great European War and the Proclamation of the British Protectorate, partial immunity from taxation, inviolability of domicile, and partial freedom from arrest and legal process by the local judicial authorities.*

Foreigners thus lived outside Mohammedan law, being answerable for their actions only

*. Consul or his deputy to be present at trial of civil cases in Ottoman courts between natives and foreigners.

to their respective consuls. The necessity for these privileges was, and is now in several Oriental States, very great, but in Egypt the abuse of these powers was monstrous.

Smuggling, sedition, illegal trades, gambling hells, and a host of other iniquities were openly carried on under the very noses of Egyptian officials who were powerless either to arrest the individuals concerned, or to enter their dwellings to obtain evidence or stop the proceedings. Such was one of the many international fetters which retarded the reformation of Egypt when the administration first passed under partial European, and later under British control.

Under the capitulations, criminal offences committed by foreigners against natives were tried in Consular Courts according to the law of the nation whose subjects the defendants happened to be. But the capitulations were not all one-sided, one of the clauses favourable to Turkey and Egypt being that no consular protection should be given to



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

MARKET PLACE, KOSTI, ON THE WHITE NILE, SUDAN

Turkish subjects in the Ottoman dominions. Where this power of protecting natives has been given into the hands of consuls, as in Morocco, the abuse has been great among the representatives of small powers. In Morocco the system of affording protection to subjects of the late Sultan—then (before the French and Spanish occupation) known as the "protégé system"—was once much abused. Intended really to protect from extortion native merchants and agents having large business relations with foreign countries it has been extended so as to include natives willing to pay for protection in order to evade taxation and the laws of the country.*

There were many ramifications of the capitulations which it would be quite impossible even to mention here, but these were the leading features. It is unnecessary to point out further the hampering influence of the capitulations on Egyptian Government when abuses of power, to prevent which the capitulations were intended, had been removed by British control. The re-conquest of the Sudan by British troops and its government by England saved these huge Central African tracts from being subject to the meshes of internationalism which held Egypt.

To demonstrate better the effect of the capitulations on Egyptian administration when under British control it is only necessary to cite the case of the "*Bosphore Egyptien*." After the abolition of the Dual Control the French Colony in Egypt and French policy was, until the happy *rapprochement* in 1904, continually endeavouring to block all progress and to hamper England's work in Egypt. The *Bosphore Egyptien* was a French journal published in Cairo. Its columns were continually filled with seditious matter, but no notice was taken of it by the authorities until February, 1885, at the time of the Mahdist revolt in the Sudan, when a proclamation of a highly dangerous character, purporting to come from the Mahdi, inviting Egyptians to join in the Holy War and rid the whole of North-east Africa of infidels, was published in *Arabic*. Nubar Pasha rightly considered himself justified in suppressing even a foreign publication which published such highly inflammatory matter in time of civil war. But after the printing office had

been entered and seized by the officials of the Government it was discovered with horror that several Frenchmen slept in the building, and it was therefore a domiciliary edifice.

All the furies of French journalism were loosed on the Anglo-Egyptian Government. A local police act, carried out with the utmost courtesy, although admittedly, an interference with the liberty of the Press, became a serious international crime and a question for diplomatic settlement between the Governments. Under the capitulations it was next door to impossible for the Egyptian Government to effect legal entry into a foreign dwelling, as before doing so permission had to be obtained from the consul, or consuls, representing the nation or nations, whose subjects dwelt in the building, and other formalities gone through which gave sufficient time for any incriminatory matter to be removed, or a new press set up elsewhere. The difficulties and obstructions placed in the way were, in fact, endless, but less formality was needed to enter an office which was not a domicile.

After weeks of negotiations, during which time Turkey stepped in and endeavoured to vindicate the action of the Egyptian Government, but really further complicated matters, the Egyptian Government were compelled partly to give way and the printing office was re-opened with a fanfare of trumpets from the French Colony, but the "sting" had been taken out of seditious foreign journalism in Egypt.

MIXED TRIBUNALS.

We must now pass on to the effect of the capitulations on the judicial system, such as consular jurisdiction, and its modification in civil cases to Mixed Tribunals. About the former little need be said, for the process was simple though the abuses were many and great. A foreigner committing a crime in Egypt was tried by his consul, or consular judge, according to the law of his country. Here again there were many complications into which it is unnecessary to plunge,—as for instance, when a man of one nationality assaults a second of another nationality and is assisted by two others of different nationality and all three fugitives take refuge in the house of a person of another nationality.

* Only the consuls of a few small Powers have been guilty of selling protection where absolutely no right to such existed. These consuls were often traders receiving practically no pay for their consular work.

The institution of the International, or "Mixed Tribunals," in 1875 was due to the foresight of Nubar Pasha. These courts were composed of judges of every nationality having any considerable number of subjects resident in Egypt, and dealt with civil actions between foreigners of different nationalities, actions between foreigners and natives, and with minor criminal offences, but for serious crime the consuls were still the judges. To simplify the above description it is necessary to recapitulate the judicial systems in vogue

European privilege has been slowly and consistently curtailed during the British intervention. Wider powers of legislative autonomy have been given, and Europeans are now subject to the same taxation as natives. In one or two other respects the effect of the capitulations has been modified to meet the new order in Egypt.

BRITISH INFLUENCE IN EGYPT.

Although it was covertly suggested by Lord Dufferin, urged by a large number of



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

RETURNING FROM MARKET, EL OBEID, SUDAN

in Egypt up to the great victory of 1918, and the subsequent international settlement, which tended to mitigate many evils.

(1) Mixed Courts for civil and minor criminal cases, with courts of appeal in Egypt.

(2) Consular courts for serious criminal cases with courts of appeal in the various countries.

(3) Native courts for civil and criminal jurisdiction over Egyptian subjects.

(4) Courts of Religious Law for the dispensation of ecclesiastical law according to the tenets of Islam.

the European residents in Egypt, and backed by a considerable section of the Press and public at home, the British Government refused to proclaim a protectorate over Egypt after the occupation, and moreover refused "the masterful hand of a Resident" advised by Lord Dufferin, which would have meant the conversion of Egypt into a feudatory State on the Indian principle—a policy which could well have been followed.

The British Government elected, however, to adopt the alternative, which was the indefinite extension of the military occupation, and the reorganisation of Egyptian

administration by placing the various departments of State under efficient and strongly supported British control.

Sir Evelyn Baring succeeded Sir Edward Malet, whose term of office had been a difficult and stormy one, as British agent and Consul-General at Cairo. Sir Auckland Colvin, the able controller in the days of the mutiny, was appointed Financial Adviser to the Khedive, displacing the Dual control. Sir Evelyn Wood became Sirdar of what was left of the Egyptian Army, and was immediately confronted with the task of reorganising it. General Baker was placed in charge of the constabulary. Colonel Colin Scott-Moncrieff became chief of the Irrigation Department, and did service invaluable. Sir Benson Maxwell, C.J., of the Straits Settlements, was appointed to reform the judicial system. Thus the affairs of Egypt were at last placed on a sure road to eventual success, but the infinitely more difficult work of creating order out of chaos in Egyptian finance and administration had yet to be done, and done it was, with Lord Cromer as the guiding star, amidst a veritable sea of difficulties of which the problem of the Sudan was by no means the least.

THE LOSS OF THE SUDAN.

The scene of action must now be changed from Egypt to the Sudan, for the events there during 1883-4-5 eclipsed those in Egypt and had a strong influence thereon.

The Sudan, previous to the rise of the Mahdi, had been a continual drain on the Egyptian revenue, which, as has already been shown, was ill able to bear the burden. The administration was of the most oppressive and corrupt description possible; and the troops of the various garrisons were months in arrears in their pay, quite untrained for actual warfare, and practically useless against the Sudanese armed with shield and spear.

Such was the state of Egyptian administration in the Sudan when General Hicks and several other British officers were placed in what appeared to be virtual command of the useless and cowardly Egyptian Army in 1883, to stem the tide of rebellion which was spreading rapidly all over the Sudan. Thousands were flocking to the Standard of the Mahdi, animated by religious fanaticism and natural courage, for the warlike tribes of portions of the Sudan must not be confounded with the

peaceful, good-tempered though cowardly fellaheen of Egypt.

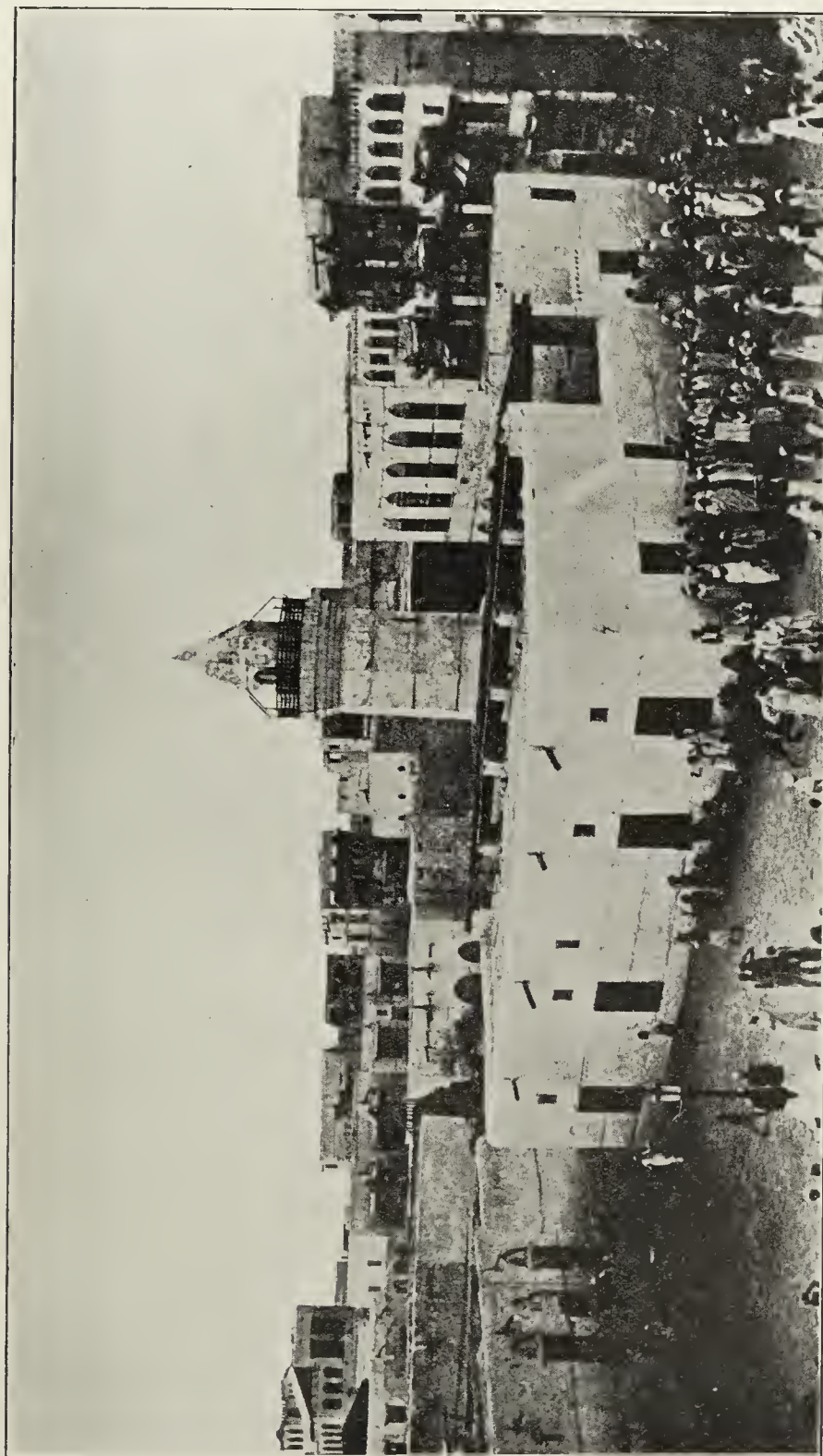
The rebellion spread from province to province, until the Dervish hosts, combined with the physical difficulties which the desert presented to extensive military operations, made the task of suppressing the rebellion impossible for Egypt to carry out unaided by brains, money and men. El Obeid, the capital of Kordofan, fell notwithstanding efforts to relieve it, and the whole of this province came under the sway of the Mahdi. Sennar was overrun with rebels and Darfur was lost.

The British Government urged the abandonment of the Sudan south of Khartoum, with the exception of the country lying between the Blue and White Niles, but the Egyptian Government ordered General Hicks to advance into Kordofan. The folly of this expedition was recognised at the time by many competent military authorities. Even General Hicks himself, whose position prohibited him from advising anything which would give the appearance of shirking the danger, pointed out the difficulties of operating far from a base in the waterless tracts of the Kordofan desert.

Catastrophes now came one after another. General Hicks' column left Duem on the White Nile on 8th September; an epidemic of cholera swept over Egypt, reaching its maximum point about this time; early in October Egyptian reinforcements, on their way to Sinkat from Suakin on the Red Sea, were cut to pieces; in November the Tokar Relief Column was utterly defeated, and in the same month General Hicks' force was annihilated at Shekan, 30 miles south of El Obeid, in the heart of the pitiless Kordofan desert.

What details are known of this disaster need not be given here. It is sufficient to say that the formation of the 10,000 demoralised and thirst-stricken Egyptian troops was broken by the rushes of the Dervishes, and that nearly the whole force was cut to pieces in detail.

When the news reached Cairo consternation and indecision reigned supreme. The British Government were undoubtedly to blame for not influencing the Egyptian Government to prevent the despatch of this expedition, which was pre-condemned by nearly every British Military and Diplomatic Official in



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

SUAKIN

THE SQUARE IN FRONT OF GOVERNMENT HOUSE,

Once the greatest slave port in all Africa



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

WOMEN OF THE HABBANIA TRIBE AT A WEDDING

Egypt. Even the despatches of General Hicks, although hopeful, as the despatches of every wise general about to start on a desperate enterprise must necessarily be, clearly indicated that it was really little better than a forlorn hope. The attitude of the British Government is tersely summed up in Lord Milner's words: "The faith in the power of phrases to alter facts has never been more strangely manifested than in this idea, that we could shake off our virtual responsibility for the policy of Egypt in the Sudan by an official disclaimer."*

It must, however, be pointed out that, in common with the mass of the people of England, the British Cabinet—far removed from the scene of action, with insufficient knowledge, and with other affairs demanding attention—did not fully grasp the extreme importance of the question until after the defeat of General Hicks, when they followed the advice given previously by Sir E. Baring—who now had the reins of Egyptian Government well in hand—and insisted on the abandonment of the whole Sudan.

Although the evacuation of territory is always an unpopular policy it was undoubtedly wise in this unusual instance, as,

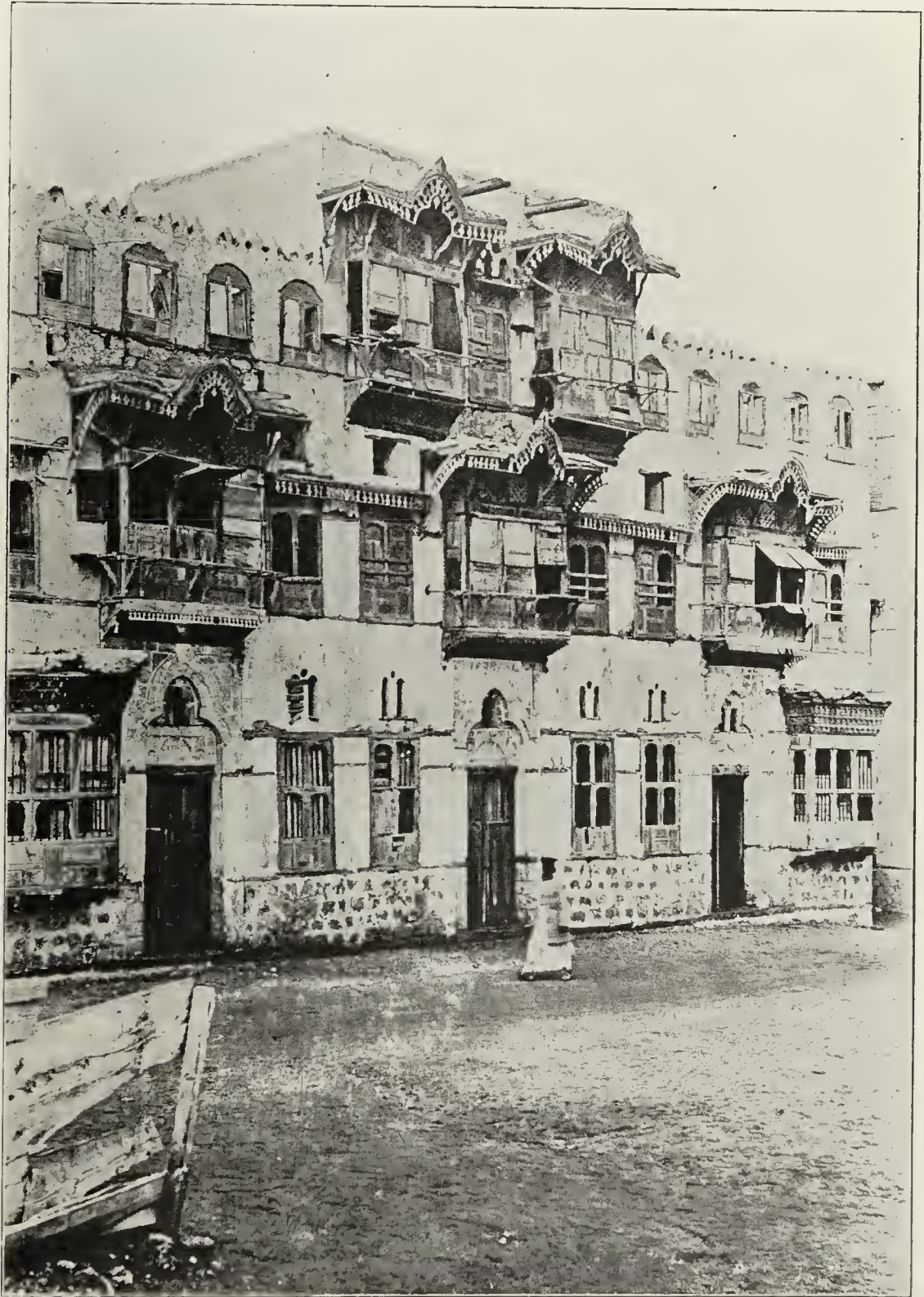
notwithstanding the presence of over 40,000 troops in the Sudan, Egypt was unable even to hold her own. It was, however, merely delaying the evil day, for even at that time it was evident to many that before very long England would have to undertake the settlement of the Sudan, especially the Nile Valley from the Equatorial Lakes to the Egyptian frontier.

The decision to abandon the Sudan caused Sherif Pasha, who had become Prime Minister in 1882, to resign, and Nubar Pasha took up the reins of government.

GORDON AT KHARTOUM.

Scarcely a month or even a week went by during the year 1884 without some fierce fight in the Sudan. Early in January General Gordon left Cairo with Colonel Stewart for Khartoum, to attempt to effect the withdrawal of the Egyptian garrisons still holding out. Just previously to starting, however, Gordon received further instructions from the Khedive which added considerably to his task. Besides effecting the evacuation he was also to take "*the necessary steps for establishing an organised government in the different provinces of the Sudan. . . .*"

* *England in Egypt.* Lord Milner.



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
OLD ARAB HOUSES AT SUAKIN, SUDAN

Amid the maze of contradictory explanations of the exact instructions issued to General Gordon one fact is at least clear. Such was the confidence of the British and Egyptian Governments in Gordon's tact and ability that many of these instructions were—if not his own composition, at least the sum and substance of his own requests.

While Gordon was proceeding to Khartoum a further disaster occurred to Egyptian troops in the Eastern Sudan. General Valentine Baker's force, or "rabble" as it has been appropriately termed, while on its way to the relief of Tokar was utterly defeated at El Teb on 4th February. Four days later the Sinkat garrison fell and was destroyed.

These events caused public opinion in England to force the hand of the British Government, and a few days after Gordon's arrival in Khartoum, on 18th February, 4,000 British troops under Sir Gerald Graham, which had been concentrated at Trinkilat for the relief of Tokar, but as that garrison fell before help arrived, advanced to El Teb and inflicted a severe defeat on the Dervishes under Osman Digna. Returning to Suakin they made a fresh sortie to Tamai, routed 12,000 Dervishes and returned again to the coast.

Events at Khartoum and along the Nile now followed one another in rapid succession. General Gordon previously to leaving Cairo had requested that Zobeir Pasha should accompany him, as although originally one of the greatest slave raiders in this portion of North Africa, Zobeir had great influence among the Sudanese chiefs who had flocked to the Standard of the Mahdi, and might be able to detach them from allegiance to this "false prophet." There existed, however, a difference between Gordon and Zobeir. The former, when Governor-General of the Sudan many years before, and engaged in the work of repressing slavery, had been partly responsible for the execution of Zobeir's son as a rebel and a slave raider. The British Government, after repeated requests from Gordon himself, finally refused to allow this notorious slave-raider to be invested with govern-

ment authority in the Sudan. It must, however, be stated here that when Gordon asked that Zobeir Pasha might be sent he argued that to effect the withdrawal of the Egyptian garrisons he needed no Zobeir, but to leave behind a settled government when the Sudan had been evacuated, Zobeir was necessary as a counter-acting influence to the Mahdi.

It is unnecessary to dwell at length on either Gordon's policy at Khartoum or the final scene. He succeeded in obtaining the full confidence of the people in the capital; creating something like a bombshell in



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
A HADENDOA TRIBESMAN

One of the tribes specially favoured by the Mahdi

England by issuing a proclamation countenancing the holding and selling of slaves (necessary under the changed circumstances). He remitted certain taxes, struck out long-standing debts, and released prisoners confined for practically no offence. It was, however, impossible to conciliate the tribes in the surrounding country.

After being some time in Khartoum, Gordon again asked for Zobeir Pasha and was supported by Sir E. Baring, but the British Government finally refused to permit his being sent, and in March the state of affairs in the Sudan was altogether altered by the rising of the tribes around Khartoum and Berber. Gordon and Stewart were surrounded by Dervishes and cut off from retreat by all ways except the river.

The question of Gordon's safety now arose. In the eastern Sudan Sir Gerald Graham and his Anglo-Indian force were available for the opening of the Suakin-Berber route, but their number was insufficient for an advance to Khartoum, and the British Government, somewhat exaggerating the climatic dangers,

refused to allow preparations to be made for an early advance. Then a project was put forward for sending British officers to Berber, and Majors Kitchener and Rundle started but were recalled.

It now became a question not so much of the withdrawal of the outlying Egyptian garrisons in the Sudan as the safety of Gordon and Stewart.* Delays took place in settling what was to be done, and in the meantime all ways of retreat from Khartoum were closed, and the city itself closely invested by thousands of fanatical Dervishes.

Instead of preparations being hurried forward for the despatch of an expedition before the hot season closed the Suakin-Berber route to Khartoum, the Indian forces under Sir Gerald Graham, and the British garrison at Suakin, were withdrawn. The question of climate, means of transport over the desert, and the smallness of the force, were the main considerations which weighed against the despatch of this expedition; nevertheless, although the obstacles were undoubtedly formidable, they could have been overcome,

* Lord Granville refused to consider the strong recommendations of Sir E. Baring, General Sir Evelyn Wood, and General Sir F. Stephenson that an expedition was urgently necessary.



THE TEMPLE OF NAGAA

Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

reinforcements could have been sent, and the problem of transport and supply met by using Indian material. There is little doubt that, if this had been done, Gordon, Stewart, and the Berber and Khartoum garrisons would all have been saved.

Gordon in his despatches had often suggested the use of a small Turkish force, and the handing over of the Sudan to the Sultan to save it from the Mahdi, but to this the British Government would, naturally not listen.

In April, 1884, the Bahr el Ghazal province fell and all communications with Khartoum from the south were cut off. In May, Berber was taken; but although urged by Sir E. Baring, it was not until August that the British House of Commons gave a vote of credit for the Khartoum Relief Expedition.

The question then arose as to whether the Berber or Nile route was the best, but Lord Wolseley, who had been appointed to command the expedition, quickly decided on the Nile route. Early in October Wolseley was concentrating and preparing for the advance at Wadi Halfa, but in the same month Colonel Stewart and several other Europeans left Khartoum in a steamer and succeeded in reaching Berber. Shortly afterwards, however, this vessel struck a rock and was totally disabled. Colonel Stewart and his companions reached the shore but were treacherously murdered after accepting the hospitality of a local Sheik.

THE RELIEF EXPEDITION.

Lord Wolseley's Nile Expedition was a race against time, and a battle waged against such physical difficulties as the desert alone offers to the advance of troops. On the last day of December preparations were made to split the force into two portions, as Khartoum was getting short of provisions and ammunition. One, known as the Desert Column, under Sir Herbert Stewart left Korti on the 8th January to cross the desert to Metemneh, and so save time by cutting off the loop made by the Nile between these points, while the River Column, commanded by General Earle, advanced along the course of the Nile to capture Berber, as to have left this place would have been dangerous to the line of retreat.*

The Desert Column reached the Wells of Abu Klea on the 16th, and on the following

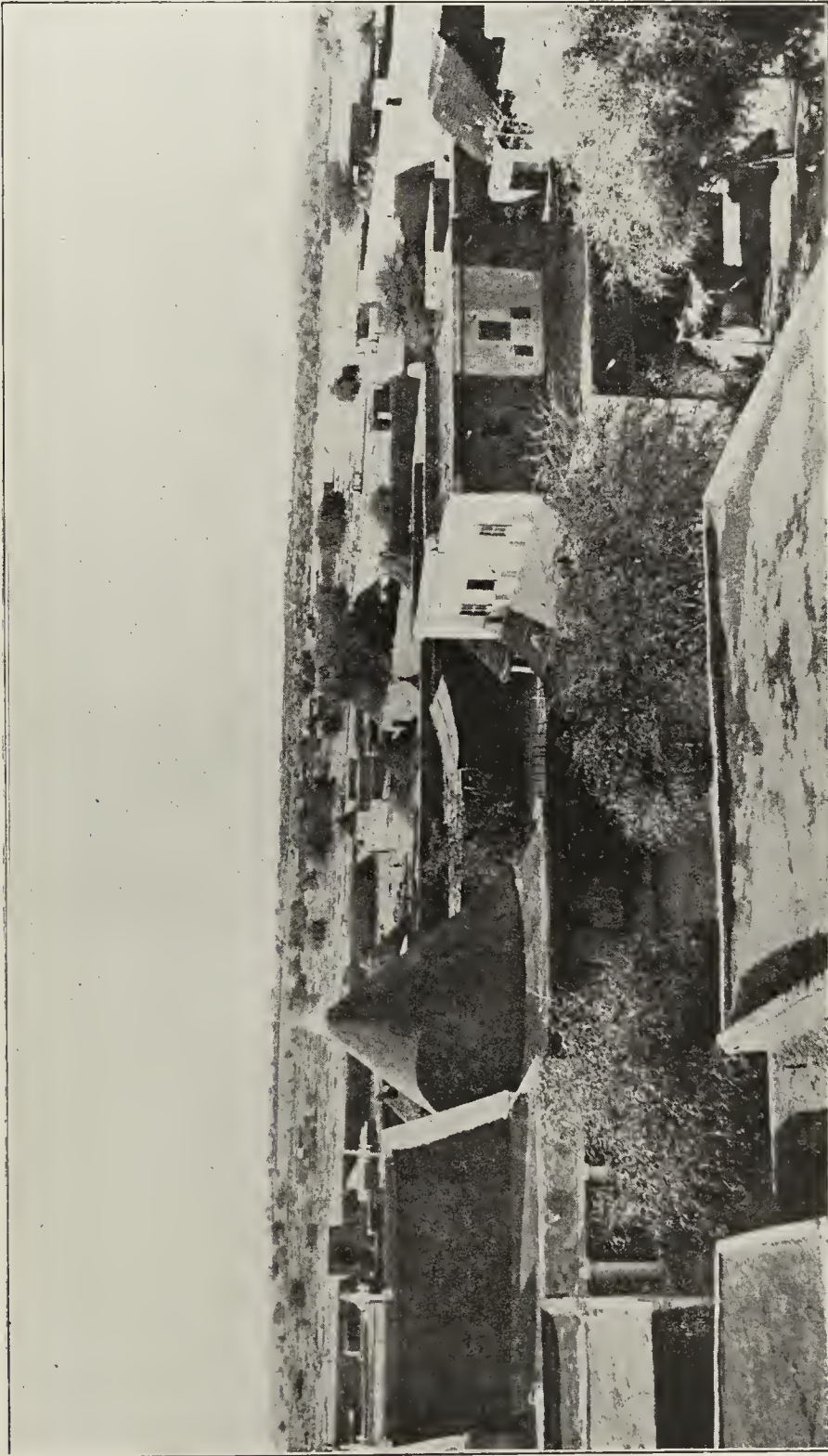
morning attacked the enemy in square formation. The face was broken at one point, but after a fierce *mêlée* the small British force repulsed thousands of Dervishes. The casualties were very heavy, and among the killed was the gallant Colonel Burnaby. After a night march on the 18th the column reached the Nile after sixteen hours marching, but a sharp engagement had to be fought in the long grass which borders the river, in which Sir Herbert Stewart was killed. The command devolved on Sir Charles Wilson, who finally routed the Dervishes along the river bank and reached the Nile near Metemneh on the 19th.

After moving up the Nile for some miles, during the 20th and 21st, and establishing a small garrison at Gubat, the steamers sent by General Gordon were met and the whole force was embarked and proceeded up stream towards Khartoum. An unaccountably long delay was made at Gubat, and one of the steamers came to grief at the sixth cataract, which caused several more precious hours to be lost. On the 28th the flotilla approached Khartoum under heavy fire from the river banks. Those on board were prepared for the worst, as on the previous day the Dervishes on the banks had shouted the intelligence that Khartoum had fallen and that General Gordon had been killed. This was, however, disbelieved until the steamers reached Khartoum and saw that the flag, which had so long waved above the city walls, had fallen and with it the gallant defender of Khartoum.

THE ABANDONMENT OF THE SUDAN.

Sir Redvers Buller succeeded Sir Charles Wilson in command of the Desert Column, and a retirement, first on the Jackdul Wells and then on the base at Korti, was made necessary by want of camels for transport and supplies. The River Column under General Earle moved towards Abu Hamed with the object of taking that place and operating with the Desert Column in a combined movement on Berber, but on the 10th February found the Dervishes on a ridge near Berti. The battle of Kirbekan was then fought and the Dervishes routed with heavy loss; the casualties on the British side being comparatively small, but General Earle, a

* An advance detachment of the Desert Column had previously established a depot at the Jackdul Wells.



Photo, Captain Garstin

EL FASHER, IN DISTANT DARFUR
Capital of the most westerly province of the Sudan

veteran of Sudanese warfare, was killed, and General Brakenbury took command. The retreat of the Desert Column, made necessary by want of transport, caused the advance on Berber to be abandoned, and the River Column retired on Merowe.

Operations in which several thousand British, Indian, and New South Wales troops were engaged, under the supreme command of Sir Gerald Graham, were, in the meantime, being conducted around Suakin. Here the fierce actions of Hashin and Tofrik were fought in March, and the Dervishes under Osman Digna forced to retire beyond Tamai.

The policy of the British Government, which had at first been forced by public opinion, roused to indignation by the delay in despatching the Relief Expedition and the consequent death of General Gordon, now cooled, and it was decided to evacuate the whole Sudan, defending the Egyptian frontier at Wadi Halfa and Assuan, although nearly all the military authorities then in the Sudan advocated an advance, or at least the retention of the Dongola Province, but the policy of evacuation was maintained.

In June, 1885, the Mahdi died but his successor, the Khalifa Abdullah-el-Taashi, continued the plan for the invasion of Egypt, and in December of the same year an Anglo-Egyptian force, under Sir Frederick Stephenson, routed the advancing army of Dervishes at Ginnis. The threatened invasion of Egypt was stopped, and the British forces retired on Assuan while the Egyptian regiments held the frontier base at Wadi Halfa.

The Central Sudan immediately lapsed into a state of barbarism, and slavery was revived in all its worst forms. The garrison of Darfur capitulated and Slatin Bey was captured and remained a prisoner of the Khalifa for many years. The Bahr el Ghazal Province fell and Lupton Bey was captured and taken prisoner to Omdurman, where he died. The Equatorial Province held out for many years under Emin Pasha, who was eventually rescued by the famous expedition under Sir H. M. Stanley, which reached Lado on the *Ultima Thule* of the Sudan by penetrating the unknown forests of Central Africa. The town of Kassala capitulated after a siege of nearly two years, and the Province of Sennar also fell after a brave resistance.

The garrisons on the Abyssinian frontier were successfully withdrawn through Abys-

sinian territory. Berbera on the Somali coast (see *Somaliland*) was taken over by the British on account of its position. The garrison of Harrar was withdrawn. Zeyla, after being offered to the Porte, was taken over by the British. Tajourrah became French. Massowah was taken over by Italy. The Lado Enclave, in the Equatorial Province, was leased for a time to King Leopold of Belgium—Sovereign of the Congo State. Thus the bulk of the enormous tracts of the Sudan returned to barbarism under the tyrannous rule of the Mahdi and Khalifa, while European nations took portions of the Red Sea coast.

The loss of the Sudan was now complete. The Nile Expedition had arrived too late to save Gordon and Stewart. The advocated advance on Khartoum, after its fall into the hands of the Mahdi, had been given up; but the threatened invasion of Egypt by the Dervishes had been repulsed, and it was proved that, although Egyptian troops alone were then useless against the Dervishes, an Anglo-Egyptian force, and, of course, a purely British force of far inferior numbers, could easily undertake offensive operations. The main difficulties confronting military operations in the Sudan were clearly shown to be:

(1) The means of transport over the trackless and almost waterless deserts. (2) The lines of supply and communication. (3) The difficulty of obtaining reliable intelligence, and (4) the effect of the summer heat on European troops. These considerations were taken fully into account when the reconquest of the Sudan was planned some ten years later by the Sirdar, Major-General Sir Herbert Kitchener.

DERVISH INVASION OF EGYPT.

Space prevents details being given here of the fighting which took place around Suakin and along the Egyptian frontier, especially in the Nile Valley, during the years 1886-9. Wad-el-Nejumi, the greatest of the Dervish Emirs, who was mainly responsible both for the annihilation of the Hicks Expedition and the fall of Khartoum, eventually collected a nondescript army about 14,000 strong and commenced the second invasion of Egypt in 1889. The Nile was the line of defence taken up by the reorganised Egyptian Army under Colonel Wodehouse, and the two forces came into touch a few miles north of Wadi

Halfa. The Dervishes attacked the village of Arguin, which was occupied by Wodehouse with about 2,000 Egyptians, and were repulsed, but, nothing daunted by this defeat, or by want of provisions and continual desertions, they continued the advance into Egyptian territory.

Sir Francis Grenfell, who had succeeded Sir Evelyn Wood as Sirdar of the Egyptian Army, which was now under specially chosen British officers, took command, and reinforcements of British and Egyptian troops were sent to the frontier from Cairo, but the British regiments did not arrive until after the final engagements had been fought.

The Egyptian forces advanced on Toski, midway between Wadi Halfa and Korosko. The Dervishes, under Nejumi, lay encamped in the desert some miles distant, but Colonel Kitchener, who was in command of the cavalry, succeeded in preventing Nejumi from refusing battle, and the steadiness of the newly-organised Egyptian Army proved too much for the Dervishes, who were completely defeated, nearly the whole force being either killed or taken prisoners.

The annihilation of the second Dervish army of invasion did away completely with any possibility of further trouble in this direction. Egypt had pacified the whole of her new southern frontier, but fighting was continued around Suakin in the Eastern Sudan. It was, therefore, decided by the British Government, after years of persuasion and discussion, to allow the reoccupation of Tokar. Colonel Hotted Smith commanded the Egyptian troops, who advanced first on Trinkital and then on Tokar, where an engagement took place in which Osman Digna was completely defeated and tranquility was restored on the eastern frontier of the Sudan.

THE RECONQUEST OF THE SUDAN.

Although the actual reconquest of the Sudan did not commence until about twelve years after the abandonment, during this reign of barbarism and cruelty the people of the British Empire felt that the honour of their country had been tarnished, and that "Gordon must be avenged." There was no finality to the Sudanese question. All recognised, however, that sooner or later a considerable portion of the Sudan would have to be reconquered. At the same time there was a certain reluctance among

politicians to approach the question of reconquest in a straightforward way, as all knew that Egypt unaided would be unequal to the task, and that it was possible of accomplishment only with British troops and British money. Furthermore, it was not then realised that a series of campaigns in the Sudan could be so efficiently carried out with a small number of British troops, and so inexpensively, as was afterwards accomplished by Sir Herbert (later Field-Marshal Lord Kitchener).

In 1895 the reconquest of the Sudan became the subject of discussion as an event likely to take place "before long"—that indefinite period which in politics and war so frequently means "very soon." At the same time, the project for damming the Nile and holding up the water in an immense reservoir for irrigation purposes was brought prominently to the front. It was realised that the financial position of Egypt, although placed on the high road to complete solvency by the reorganisation of the whole Egyptian administration by a number of expert British and Anglo-Indian specialists, of whom Lord Cromer, the master of "ways and means," was the leading spirit, could not bear the heavy strain imposed by the conduct of both these schemes.

The British Government refused to sanction the reoccupation of the Sudan as late as 1895. The British public were, however, being slowly enlightened on Imperial matters, and when, early in the following year, an Italian force was severely defeated at Adua while conducting operations against King Menelek of Abyssinia, who was believed to be in league with the Khalifa, and a third Dervish invasion of Egypt was threatened, a large section of the public seized this opportunity to urge on the Government the necessity for the reconquest of at least a portion of the Sudan. The Italian Ambassador asked that a diversion might be made in the Sudan to lessen the pressure on the weakened and defeated Italian forces. In the course of a few months from these events the policy of abstention from the Sudan was reversed. The fertile province of Dongola was to be reoccupied.

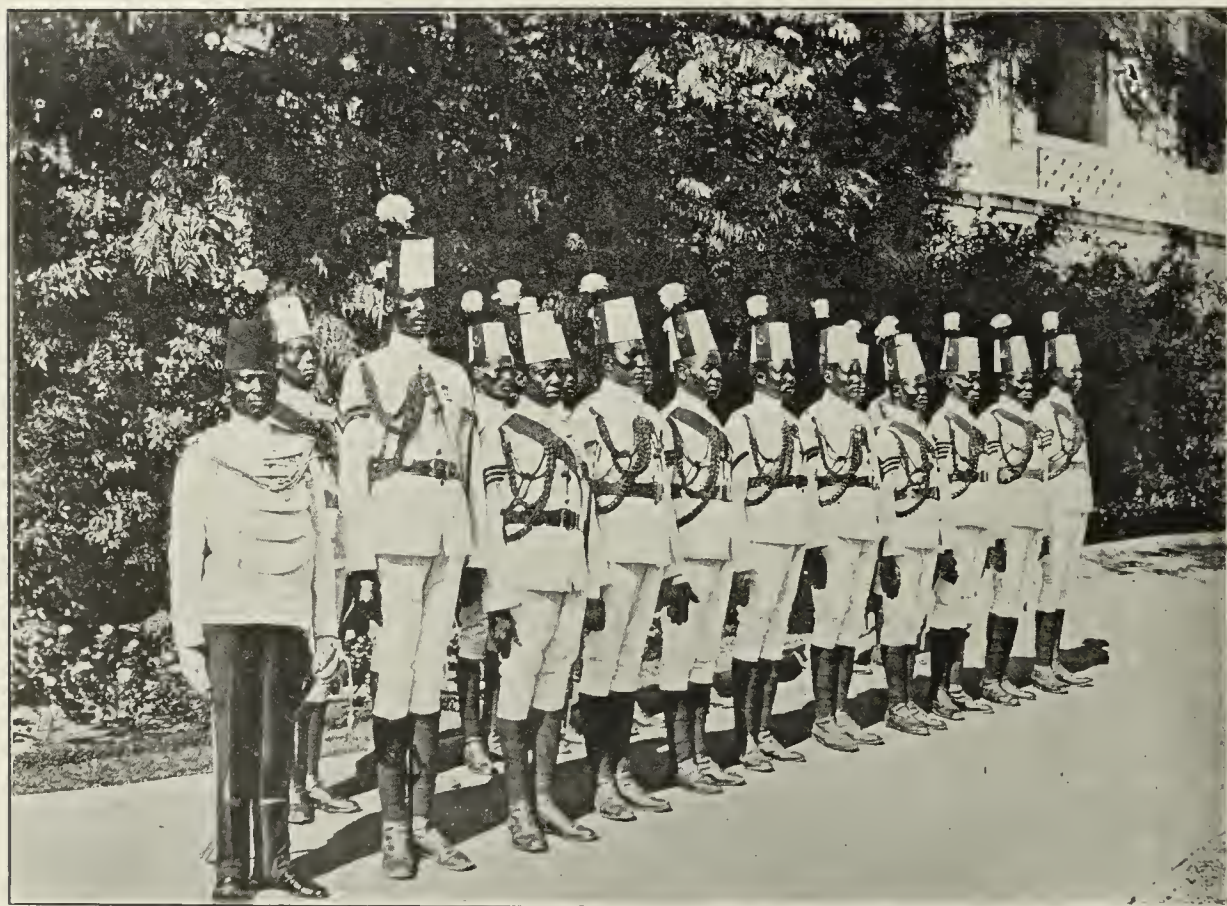
The exact details of this and subsequent operations may be seen in the many excellent purely military works covering this subject exhaustively; it is sufficient to give here the

general outline to enable the student, or casual reader, to follow the succession of events which led to the reconquest and establishment of the modern Sudan—a country as large as British India.

It was decided that the Egyptian Army alone was now almost capable of performing the task, but in order that the full force could be employed, 2,500 Indian troops were despatched to garrison Suakin, and a British battalion was sent to Wadi Halfa to lend

June the line had reached a point some 60 miles nearer to Dongola, and two columns, about 5,000 strong, advanced on the Dervish position at Firket, some 16 miles distant, during the night of June 6th, with the object of surrounding them. So successful was this difficult night operation in the desert that the Dervishes were taken by surprise and utterly routed.

This victory gave the, as yet but little tried, Egyptian troops confidence in them-



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL'S ESCORT AT THE PALACE, KHARTOUM

moral courage, and as an earnest that once undertaken, the work would be accomplished, even if a far larger British force had to be eventually employed. The details relating to transport and supply had all been previously worked out by the Sirdar, in conjunction with Lord Cromer. The railway from Wadi Halfa to Sarras was continued southwards towards Dongola, the work being covered as the line proceeded by a strong force at rail head and on either flank. By

selves and in their leaders, but further operations were delayed for several months by a sharp outbreak of cholera and several climatic calamities. However, after one more fight the Dervishes retired, and Dongola was reconquered by September at an exceptionally low cost of both men and money.

THE FINANCIAL DIFFICULTY.

A financial problem of importance to both England and Egypt was being worked out

while Dongola was being reconquered. The revenue of Egypt, it will be remembered, was, at the time of the financial settlement, divided into two nearly equal halves. One was to pay the charges on the debt and the other the cost of administration. During the years of economy and reorganised administration which had elapsed since this arrangement was made the revenues assigned for the payment of the debt had increased to such an extent that a considerable "General Reserve Fund" had been created, which was in the hands of the Controllers. Therefore, before the £E500,000 required for the Dongola Expedition could be obtained, the sanction of the Controllers was necessary. This was given, but the French and Russian Controllers disagreed and commenced an action before the Mixed Tribunals against the Egyptian Government for the return of the money. A judgment was given in their favour by the Courts of First Instance, and confirmed several months afterwards by the Court of Appeal, whose action appears to have been influenced somewhat by political considerations. The Egyptian Government was therefore compelled to refund the £E500,000 which had been taken for the expedition, although all charges on the debt had been punctually met, and there was still a large Reserve Fund.

This was another instance of the hampering action of internationalism. Lord Cromer met and overcame this difficulty as he met and overcame many more difficulties both before and after. He induced England, with the consent of Parliament, to lend £800,000 to the Egyptian Government at a low rate of interest. Thus, while Lord Kitchener was overcoming the physical and military difficulties of the reconquest of Dongola, Lord Cromer was engaged in the successful struggle against the political and financial difficulties of this expedition.

THE FINAL ADVANCE ON KHARTOUM.

Nearly a year elapsed after the occupation of Dongola before the British Government finally sanctioned the advance on Khartoum and the reconquest of the whole Sudan. During this wait the various aspects of the coming campaign, both financial and military, were well considered. It was evident that men and money would have to be supplied

by England, for although the Egyptian Treasury was well-stocked, the key was in the safe keeping of the Commissioners of five nations, who would scarcely be induced to part with it even for a little while for many years to come. The Egyptian Army, although a marvellous improvement on the rabble which followed Hicks, needed a "stiffening." The question was, what was the least amount of money, and the least number of men required from England to carry the campaign to a successful issue, not only without risk of failure, for such would have meant a frightful catastrophe, with far-reaching consequences, but also without *undue* risk of a repulse at first, as this might have disheartened the Egyptian troops who were slowly gaining confidence in themselves.

These were the two main problems which had to be discussed and settled by the political and military authorities in London and Cairo. Further, there were difficulties, almost unsurmountable, of a purely military standing, such as, the question of transport and supply—always one of the great problems of war, but doubly important and difficult of solution with the desert as the field of operations. True, there was the Nile, but the Nile has cataracts over which it is extremely difficult to pass steamers even when unloaded, but it helped. The Sirdar, in whose hands all these important details of organisation were left, grasped and solved the problems boldly. Months before the British Government gave its final sanction for the advance, a railway was being pushed forward across this portion of the Nubian Desert, from Wadi Halfa towards Abu Hamed.

Early in August, 1897, an Egyptian column under General Hunter, a veteran of African warfare, advanced along the Nile from the base at Merowe, and after a sharp but decisive action occupied Abu Hamed on 7th August. The Dervishes retired from Berber later, and this important position was at once occupied by Egyptian troops. The railway was at the same time hastily pushed forward towards this advanced position.

Shortly after the occupation of Berber, it became apparent that the Dervishes were everywhere retiring, and the well-organised Intelligence Department not only confirmed this, but added the disquieting news that they



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

THE MOSQUE, KHARTOUM

were concentrating for an advance *en masse* to effect the recapture of the lost province.

The hand of the Government was forced by this news. Immediate steps were taken for the defence of the country already won, and preparations were at the same time pushed forward for the final onslaught on Khartoum. Four British battalions were at once sent to the front from the army of occupation in Egypt, and these, with two Egyptian infantry brigades, cavalry, and artillery, were concentrated at Berber, in March, 1898. A few weeks later the Dervish host, under the Emir Mahmoud, numbering over 12,000 men, crossed the Nile at Metenineh and advanced over the desert to a point on the Atbara within striking distance of Berber. After a few days' delay, owing to the unwillingness of Mahmoud to leave his zareba, the Anglo-Egyptian force stormed the position on 8th April, and in less than an hour the Dervishes were utterly defeated, and Mahmoud was a prisoner.

Then followed four months of preparation for the final advance. Another British Brigade was despatched to the front after the summer heat of the Sudan was over, with a regiment of cavalry and a battery of artillery, making a total Anglo-Egyptian force of over 22,000 men, under the command of the Sirdar.

In the early part of August the Army arrived within about 50 miles of Omdurman, the stronghold of Mahdisni, and, on 2nd September, the Dervish army of 50,000 men, concentrated under the walls of Omdurman, gave battle in sight of the city. The magnificent bravery of the Dervishes, who swept forward in dense masses undeterred by the hail of shot and shell from the rifles, maxims and guns on the river steamers, was of no avail, although there was a time when a gap between two of the brigades caused some anxious moments. Eleven thousand Dervishes were killed and a far larger number wounded. The Anglo-Egyptian loss did not

amount to 500 men. Omdurman was entered in triumph on the same afternoon, and two days later Khartoum was occupied and a service held in honour of one of England's most illustrious sons, Major-General Charles Gordon.

The Khalifa escaped with a portion of his army into the desert tracts of Kordofan, but Sir Reginald Wingate, who became Sirdar in succession to Lord Kitchener, succeeded in surprising the Khalifa's force at Om Debraket. In the fight which ensued, the Khalifa and his principal Emirs were slain, while Osman Digna again escaped, but was eventually captured and sent a prisoner to Egypt. The cruel and tyrannous dominion of Mahdism was ended, the Sudan reconquered and Gordon avenged.*

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE BRITISH SUDAN.

In order to prevent the administration of the reconquered Sudan from being hampered by internationalism, which had proved such a fertile source of trouble in Egypt, it was

decided that these vast, wild lands should be ruled by England and Egypt conjointly, the British and Egyptian flags being hoisted together when Lord Kitchener entered Omdurman.

Nearly all the former Egyptian Sudan was occupied after the overthrow of the Khalifa. Fortified posts were established as far south as Fashoda (Kodok) and Sobat. At Fashoda, in the same month as the battle of Omdurman, Lord Kitchener came face to face with Major Marchand, who was in command of a small French expedition which had gallantly made its way there from the Congo.

At last England and France had met on the Upper Nile, and one side must now give way. The excitement in all three countries rose to fever heat. To England and Egypt the Nile Valley was worth fighting for, as it meant control of the waters of the Nile—the life blood of Egypt—from the Equatorial lakes to the Mediterranean Sea. To France this land of desert and swamp was not worth the risk of a conflict, although Russia, Turkey, and even the Khedive were on their side.

* This campaign has a strong claim on the careful study of all who have taken, or take an interest in, the conduct of war, on account of the masterly organisation—both military and financial. Lord Cromer gives the total cost of these campaigns (1896–98) at the remarkably low figure of £2,354,000, out of which about £1,355,000 was devoted to railway, telegraph, and river-gunboat construction.



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

THE GORDON COLLEGE, KHARTOUM
Students at Physical Drill



Photo by kind permission of H.S. Couling

THE MARKET OMDURMAN

Representations were made to the French Government, and after some weeks' delay—a period of tension between the two countries which came near to a rupture of friendly relations—France acted honourably, and ordered Major Marchand to withdraw.

The evacuation of Fashoda, or Kodok as it is now called, took place on 11th December, and France thus finally abandoned any designs she might have entertained to establish a belt of French territory across Africa from the Atlantic to the Red Sea with an outlet to the Mediterranean by way of Algeria and Tunis.

Little more need be said here about this now forgotten incident. The position of the two countries in the Nile Valley had been many years approaching a crisis, and it came at Fashoda. Major Marchand and his party had performed a magnificent march, which has its place in the annals of exploration, but as a policy it was weak in the extreme. England, on the other hand, had spent millions of money and many valuable lives in the reconquest of the Sudan, and, apart from these considerations, the interest of England in the Nile Valley was vital, whereas to France it was but a scheme of political expansion which could never have resulted in a financial or commercial success.

The crisis having come and happily passed, a definite settlement was necessary. Early in 1899 a convention was signed between Great Britain and Egypt which provided for the governance of the Sudan by the two countries, *with England as the predominant Power.*

In the same year an agreement was concluded between England and France which settled the respective spheres of the two nations in North Africa. The frontier between the Anglo-Egyptian and the French Sudan runs from Darfur to Wadia, 500 miles westwards of the Nile.

Thus England and Egypt obtained a free hand over the great river from the lakes to the sea, but Egypt itself had yet to be freed from some of the most galling of the fetters of internationalism. This was partly accomplished in 1904 by the signature of the Anglo-French agreement, aided later by the Peace of 1920.



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

A STREET IN THE NATIVE CITY OF OMDURMAN

For many years the question of the neutralisation of the Suez Canal was an ever-recurring problem which had to be faced by diplomats and politicians. In 1887 a convention was signed but not ratified, and again in 1888. The French were persistent in their demands that the Suez Canal should be neutralised so that even warships during hostilities should be allowed to pass through, but the British Government were equally insistent that if warships were allowed to pass through they should be prohibited from committing any act of hostility while on the passage, and, furthermore, that nothing should be done in this direction until the termination of the British occupation of Egypt.

Events in 1903-4, however, altered the relative positions of the two main disputants. The internal affairs of Morocco had been gradually getting into a state of disorder which made European intervention in some shape or form almost unavoidable. The position of France in Algeria naturally made her anxious to be chosen as the instrument of pacification, but there were England and Spain to be considered. The latter had scarcely recovered sufficiently from the disastrous effects of the Spanish-American War, and in order to gain the support of England, who had important interests in portions of Morocco, France agreed to recognise the indefinite occupation of Egypt by Great Britain and to abstain from all interference in the affairs of Egypt. By this agreement the Egyptian Government obtained what was practically financial freedom and emancipation from the bonds of internationalism, while Great Britain secured a free hand in Egypt and the Sudan. But the Suez Canal Convention of 1888, giving freedom to the vessels of all nations to use the Suez Canal in time of peace or war, was ratified. French financial interests in Egypt were secured and she obtained increased political influence in Morocco.

THE RENAISSANCE OF EGYPT.

The financial and administrative reorganisation of Egypt could only be given in detail in a whole book of reforms. Here it is sufficient to say that the Egyptian revenue, notwithstanding large remissions of taxation,

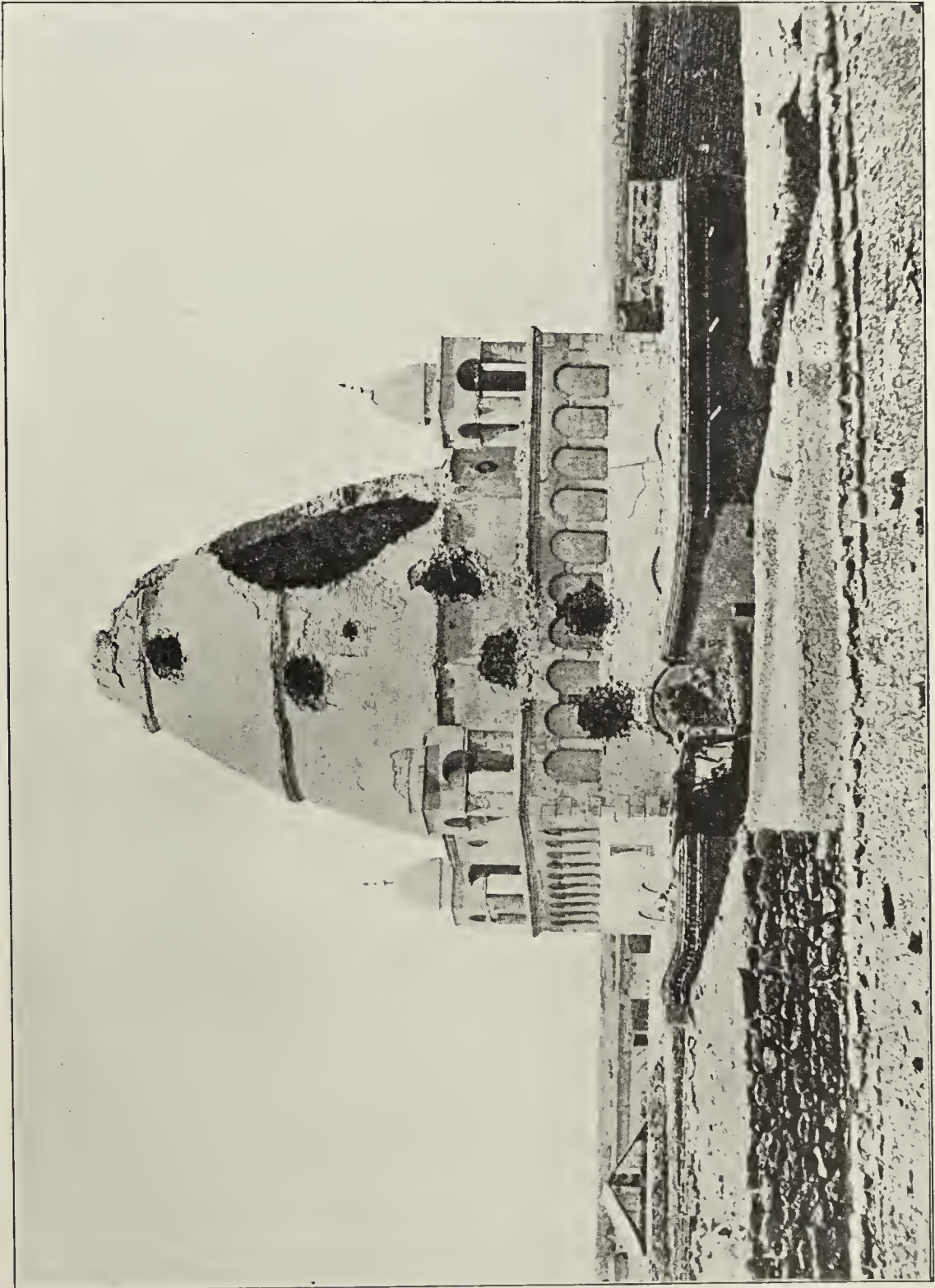
rose steadily from just over £E9,637,000 in 1885 to £E12,248,108 in 1903, and to an average of £E38,500,000 in 1930. The use of the *courbash* or *bastinado* has been abolished throughout Egypt and the Sudan; the *corvée*, or compulsory unpaid labour on public works, such as clearing the Nile mud from the Irrigation Canals—a measure absolutely necessary for the prosperity of the people themselves—was abolished and paid labour substituted. This measure was made possible by the generous action of England in guaranteeing—on the interest payable on the Suez Canal shares, wisely purchased for the British nation by Benjamin Disraeli—the money necessary to effect this important reform.*

Official corruption was everywhere rife previous to British intervention, but much has been done during recent years to diminish this by the regular payment of adequate salaries to Government employees, the reorganisation of the law courts, the construction of public works by tender, and the efforts of the handful of Britons in the Egyptian Civil Service to make any form of corruption a social crime. It will, however, be almost impossible absolutely to put a stop to bribery in the interior for many years to come.

Education has made rapid strides since 1900; previously to that date the struggle against bankruptcy made the supply of large funds for this purpose quite impossible. Now, however, the Education Department is making strenuous endeavours either to provide, or induce the establishment of, an efficient "*Kuttab*," or primary school, in every village, and several in each town, with higher grade vernacular schools in the chief towns of the districts; and further to provide agricultural, industrial and technical schools in various parts of the State. Many years must, however, elapse before this programme can be efficiently carried out, as a very considerable percentage of the people of Egypt are still illiterate, and many of the children who attend the private *Kuttabs*—by far the largest in number and most popular—learn little more than the verses of the Koran.

Great assistance has been given to education in Egypt by foreign enterprise and money, especially American. There are nearly

* Guarding the banks of the Nile during high river season to prevent any possibility of the embankments giving way, and the country being flooded, is still partly carried out by *corvée* in a very mild form.



THE TOMB OF THE MAHDI, OMDURMAN *Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers*
As it appeared after the Reconquest of the Sudan. A portion of this structure has since been demolished

600 foreign schools. In 1908 a National University was founded in Cairo ; and there is also the Azhar University, in Cairo, which is one of the principal in the Moslem world.

The sanitary systems and regulations have recently been much improved, but a great deal still remains to be done in this respect. Drainage systems are non-existent in the towns of the interior, but many now have an abundant water supply. The hospitals, once

THE RAILWAYS.

The railway administration, like everything else in Egypt, was for many years in the grip of internationalism. The lines and rolling stock were seldom repaired or replaced, and no funds were allowed for either extending the system or keeping what there was in proper repair, with the result that at the beginning of the twentieth century the whole system threatened to become unwork-



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

A BELLE OF OMDURMAN

in the most disgraceful condition possible, have been enlarged, remodelled, and are now supplied with efficient staffs and modern appliances.

It would be quite impossible even to mention here all the reforms carried out in Egypt since Tel-el-Kebir, nor is such a list called for ; mention, however, must be made of the Egyptian railways, the army, and the irrigation system.

able. But relief came at last. The signing of the Anglo-French Agreement in 1904 freed the railway administration from its international bonds just in time to save the lines from complete disorganisation. The whole system was renovated and extended, several millions sterling being spent thereon.

In addition to the network of State railways, which is over 2,500 miles in total length, there are also over 900 miles of light

railways, owned by private companies, which carry from 6,000,000 to 7,000,000 passengers and over 1,000,000 tons of merchandise in the average year. The State Railways convey on an average about 28,000,000 passengers and about 6,000,000 tons of merchandise per annum.

THE ARMY.

The modern Egyptian Army which fought on the Atbara, at Omdurman, and in the Great War, bears little resemblance to the mutinous, half-trained rabble routed at Tel-el-Kebir, and afterwards disbanded by order of the Khedive. It has been made, from the poor material at first offered, by a specially selected body of British officers under successive Sirdars of great ability (Sir Evelyn Wood, Lord Grenfell, Lord Kitchener, and Sir Reginald Wingate). It is composed of two elements, the Egyptian and the Sudanese, or blacks. The former are willing, good at drill, and fairly steady in action; the latter are excitable, childlike in many of their ways, but are excellent fighters, possessing both dash and steady courage; both are, however, somewhat prone to "wild firing" when in action.

THE ENGLISH IN EGYPT.

Before passing on to the last, though by no means the least, important phase in the renaissance of Egypt, it may be as well to say something of the British in Egyptian employ. The position of the British High Commissioner is now mainly that of an Ambassador, his functions being diplomatic and not administrative. He is, in fact, what he makes himself, and what he makes himself is governed more or less by the support he receives from the British Government and the British people.

In Lord Cromer's early days England's position in Egypt was undefined, and, as a consequence, the relations between the British Agent and the Khedive, his ministers, and with the Consuls-General of the other Powers and the Controllers of the Public Debt, were so vague that they were really governed entirely by the personality of the Agent and not by any defined diplomatic or administrative position. Lord Cromer made that position one of supreme control, and his successors sustained it with marked ability. But it should be borne in mind that the

recognised head is now the King of Egypt. The British Representative, however, takes precedence over the Representative of any other Power. The defence of the country still remains in the hands of Great Britain. The Treaty granting virtual autonomy called for a declaration of the *perpetual alliance* of the new Kingdom with the British Empire.

IRRIGATION.

It is scarcely possible to conceive anything of more importance to the prosperity of Egypt than an efficient irrigation system. Egypt is essentially an agricultural country with highly fertile soil, and yet relies on water which does not fall within the confines of the State. Lord Milner has said that, "Egypt, as a geographical expression, is two things—the Desert and the Nile," it is, in fact, the gift of this great river.

From time immemorial every effort has been made to utilise to the best advantage, according to the knowledge of the day, the waters of the Nile, which come from the Abyssinian highlands and the great lakes of Equatorial Africa, and, after losing nearly half their bulk in the "Sudd" region of the Southern Sudan, traverse for over 1,000 miles the deserts north of Khartoum, and yet flow into Egypt in quantity sufficient to water the whole Nile Valley if science and engineering skill are used to economise and distribute it by means of dams, canals, and drainage systems.

It is beyond the scope of this work to deal with the scientific problem of Egyptian irrigation, or its origin and development, which form the subject of a valuable engineering work by the greatest of Egyptian irrigation engineers, Sir Colin Scott Moncrieff, as well as many voluminous reports. There are, however, one or two essential points in this all-important problem which must receive attention here, and the rise and fall of the Nile and the successful working of the extensive irrigation systems are matters of life and death to the people as well as to the prosperity of both Egypt and the British Sudan.

Time has been when the anxiously awaited Nile flood (June-August) has not reached its full height, or discharge, which should be from about 600,000,000 to 900,000,000 cubic metres a day, and famine, wide-spread misery and death has been the result. Again



SPECIALLY DRAWN FOR THE ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

BY A. H. LEE



when the flood has reached its proper level and the banks of the Nile are nearly bursting with the volume and rush of waters (September-November), will it subside in time, and leave the rich deposits of mud brought down from the plateaux of Abyssinia and fertilised by the vegetable matter from Equatorial Africa, so that the seeds for the "Corn of Egypt" may be sown therein, or will it rise abnormally, burst in the embankments and carry devastation far and wide?

These were annual questions of vital moment to the people of Egypt and the Sudan before the superior skill of the British irrigation engineer changed the "Basin System" to perennial irrigation. The former method, which is still in vogue in portions of Upper Egypt, only allowed crops to grow which could be sown and reaped during the first part of the low river season, but cotton, sugar and other valuable crops, which Egypt now largely produces, needed a supply of water all the year round. For this purpose it was necessary to construct not only a complicated system of main and subsidiary canals, often at various levels, as well as sluices, drainage systems and pumps, but also to hold up the river itself by dams. The "barrage" across the two branches of the Nile about 14 miles below Cairo, originated by Moguel Bey, a French engineer, in 1862, was the first attempt to hold up the waters of the Nile by a dam.

Without following in detail the gradual change from the basin system to perennial irrigation it is sufficient to say that in 1898, the year in which the reconquest of the Sudan was finally accomplished, the great scheme of British engineers for damming the Nile and creating a reservoir to husband the flood water was commenced.

For many years the hampering internationalism had placed a ban on this enormously beneficial undertaking, and even at the last moment it could only be carried out by ingenuity. If Egypt could not pay for this work, which was so materially to increase her annual revenue, owing to international restrictions, then it must be constructed on credit. This was Lord Cromer's way out of the difficulties placed in the path by the Powers. In 1898 the firm of Aird agreed to build the dam at Assuan and accept payment by half-yearly instalments

of £78,613, to commence when the work was completed.

This work not only has added largely to the revenue of Egypt, but has increased many times the cotton crop, and brought hundreds of thousands of additional acres under cultivation. Many millions sterling have since been spent to good purpose on improving and extending the irrigation systems of Egypt and the Sudan (*q.v.*). In 1930 the surveys were authorised by the Abyssinian Government for a dam across the Blue Nile at its source in Lake Tsana in the Abyssinian highlands. (See *Sudan, Irrigation.*)

EGYPT AND THE EMPIRE.

In 1914 the Military Occupation of Egypt was changed to a full British Protectorate over the land of the Pharaohs. This form of government lasted throughout the whole period of the Great European War. British, Australian and Indian troops, as well as Naval forces, prevented the invasion of the country by Turkish and Arabian armies, but the Khedive openly sided with the Central Powers and was promptly deposed. After the conclusion of Peace in 1920, strong Nationalist aims became manifest in the cities of Egypt. Riots occurred and British Officials were assassinated in Cairo. The country was in the early stages of civil war when Field-Marshal Viscount Allenby, who had just completed the conquest of Palestine (*q.v.*), was appointed British Agent and Commander-in-Chief in Egypt. After negotiations, which were prolonged by the outburst of lawlessness in Cairo and elsewhere, Egypt was given independence under His Majesty King Fuad I, on March 16th, 1922, upon the signature of a treaty of perpetual allegiance with the British Empire containing the safeguards mentioned in previous pages. In this way Egypt obtained complete self-government and became a member of the British League. Unfortunately this treaty was never properly ratified, and the position of Egypt remains undefined.

MODERN EGYPT.

The 363,180 square miles of North East African territory forming modern Egypt is divided into two sections—Lower Egypt (Masr-el-Bahri), and Upper Egypt (El Said), and has Palestine, Arabia, and the Red Sea

on its eastern frontier, the Mediterranean on the north, Tripoli on the west, and the Sudan on the south. Much of the western part of both Upper and Lower Egypt is composed of the Libyan Desert, and the comparatively narrow strip of territory bordering the Red Sea consists of a chaos of barren hills, rocks and sandy valleys. Divided from the African mainland by the Suez Canal is the little block of territory in Arabia, called the Sinai Peninsula, which adjoins the new British Protectorate of Palestine (see *Lands of the Mandates*). In this way the 363,180 square miles of Egyptian territory is reduced *economically* to the 14,000 square miles of highly fertile land forming the Valley of the Nile, including the Delta of that great river.

For Administrative purposes the settled land surface is divided into 5 Town Governorships, and 14 Provinces. The Town Governor-

ships are : Cairo (the capital), 42 square miles in area with about 1,000,000 population ; Alexandria (one of the chief ports), 19 square miles, with nearly 575,000 inhabitants ; Canal area, including Port Said and Ismailia, with 133,700 people ; Suez (at the Red Sea entrance to the Canal), with 39,200 population ; and Damietta, 11 square miles in area, with 34,900 inhabitants. The Provinces are as follows :—

LOWER EGYPT.

	Sq. miles.	Population.
Gharbia - -	2,534	1,786,900
Beheira - -	1,724	974,000
Sharqia - -	1,322	1,013,000
Dagahlia - -	1,006	1,078,000
Menufia - -	606	1,100,000
Qalubia - -	358	557,500



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

THE OSTRICH FEATHER MARKET, EL NAHUD

The native town of El Nahud, in Kordofan, is the centre of the ostrich feather trade of the Sudan

UPPER EGYPT.

	Sq. miles.	Population.
Asyût - - -	768	1,078,000
Qena - - -	754	897,000
Fayûm - - -	669	553,000
Minya - - -	651	837,000
Girga - - -	576	966,000
Beni-Suef - - -	409	507,000
Giza - - -	398	590,000
Assuan - - -	168	267,000

There are also the vast tracts of the Desert with a nomadic population estimated (1930) at 80,000.

Topographically Egypt may be divided into five zones : (1) the fertile Nile Valley ; (2) the sandy plains and the hills of the Libyan and Arabian Deserts ; (3) the level but fertile plains of the Nile Delta ; (4) the almost continuous chains of hills and low mountains which border the Nile Valley from Philae to Cairo ; and (5) the inhospitable hills and waste lands lying between the Nile and the Red Sea.

The length of the Nile Valley (including the Delta), which may be termed the live heart of Egypt, is approximately 960 miles, if the windings of the river are taken into consideration, but its average width barely exceeds 10 miles. The Delta, however, is nearly 160 miles broad, and extends from Alexandria on the west, to the ruins of Polusium on the east. In the extreme south of Egypt is the Island of Philae (on the Nile), which is compared by Arabs to an emerald set in gold, because of its luxuriant vegetation, which contrasts with the glaring desert by which it is surrounded. The Sudan begins at Halfa. In order to describe the Nile Valley from this point northwards to Cairo (762 miles), the route taken by the Sudan Government River Steamers and the Egyptian State Railways will be followed. The first place of interest after leaving Wadi Halfa is the famous rock temple of Abu Simbel, on the west bank of the Nile. Here are situated the most interesting monuments in Nubia.

THE ROCK TEMPLE OF ABU SIMBEL.

This great temple was built by Rameses II to commemorate his victory over the Cheta

in north-east Syria. For grandeur and magnificence it is second to none in all Egypt. This temple is entirely excavated in the granite stone rock to a depth of 185 ft., and the surface of the rock, which originally sloped down to the river, was cut away for a space of about 90 ft. square to form the front of the temple, which is ornamented by four colossal statues of Rameses II, 66 ft. high, seated on thrones, hewn out of the living rock. A little to the south of the Great Temple is a small building of the same date which was used in connection with the services ; on the walls are some interesting scenes and hieroglyphics.

The river scenery from this point onwards is both diversified and interesting. The banks, for the most part cultivated, are fringed with trees, with here and there a native town shewing through the dense foliage. Korosko is passed, from which—in the days before the railway—the caravans started southward across the Nubian Desert to Abu Hamed. At intervals the winding river opens up a panorama of mountains sweeping in from the horizon, soft and beautiful in colour ; then comes a rugged mass of rock thrown up sheer from the river, and backed by hills, tier upon tier, barren and forbidding. Again the fertile tract, the natives hauling water from the river for their fields by means of *shadufs*, others threading their way on foot and on donkeys along the banks. Native *gyassas*, with their broad sails straining in the wind come gliding past, and at the back of all huge humped masses of yellow sand lie golden in the light of the setting sun.

ASSUAN.

Assuan occupies the site of the ancient Syene, and the district bearing this name still lies in the immediate vicinity. Here is found the porphyry which was used in so many instances in the temples and the tombs of antiquity. Traces of huge obelisks, partially quarried from the native rock, are also met with near here. The total distance from Cairo to Assuan is 583 miles, and from the mouth of the river in the Mediterranean 730 miles. The native bazaar possesses some interest, this being, until recently, an important centre, to which the products of Abyssinia and Upper Ethiopia were brought

by caravans for transmission to various parts of Lower Egypt. It was also the principal market for merchandise from the Sudan. Since the British occupation, many important improvements have taken place; barracks have been built and many antiquarian researches of great interest have been made.

The foundation stone of the Great Dam at Assuan was laid on the 12th February, 1899. It was opened on the 10th December, 1902, by the Duke of Connaught. Its length is approximately $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles, and it has 180 steel sluice gates. These are open during high Nile and then gradually closed, thus holding up an immense volume of water which is let out as required, instead of running uselessly away to the sea, as was formerly the case. It has been estimated that the yield of crops over the vast tract of intervening country has been increased ninefold, and this fact

must be accepted as compensation for the encroachment of the waters on the picturesque ruins of Philae, now partially submerged.

Assuan is now a tourist resort during the winter months. It has the fine "Cataract Hotel," and is one of the most picturesque places in the whole Nile Valley. The winter climate is delightful.

TEMPLES AND TOMBS OF THE LOWER NILE.

Near to Assuan, and connected by a short railway line, stands the Island of Philae, which is nearly covered by ruins, the principal being the Temple of Isis, one of the most beautiful structures in all Egypt, "Pharaoh's Bed," and near by the First Cataract or Rapids of the Nile. A few miles further up the great river stands the Temple



A DINKA VILLAGE *Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers*
(About 300 miles south of Khartoum)

of Komombo, with its reliefs depicting the medical instruments in use 4,000 years ago—almost identical with those of to-day,—and the Mountain of Silsilek, with its wonderful quarries, from whence most of the stone employed in the erection of Egyptian temples was taken; the quarries, rock passages, and grottos, on the walls of which are tablets bearing the names of some of the Pharaohs, can be distinctly seen from the river. On the opposite bank, some miles up the river, stands the Temple of Edfou, which is, perhaps, one of the most perfect existing specimens of Egyptian temples. Its propyla and external inscriptions contain important details of the ancient geography of Egypt.

Ancient temples, and other monuments, follow so closely upon each other along the Nile banks that detailed description of each is quite impossible here, although mention must be made of the magnificent "Temple of Karnak," situated close to the fine hotels of Luxor, the principal winter resort of Upper Egypt. The route to this temple lies across the plain and along the Grand Avenue of Sphinxes. These are coeval with the Temple, and the way was once bordered with them on either side during the whole distance from the Temple of Luxor. The propylon, or outer wall (still about 50 feet in height) and the various courts lead to the great hall of the Temple. This wonderful apartment measures 170 feet by 329 feet, and the roof was supported by 134 massive columns 60 feet in height. The effect of moonlight and shade on the avenues of columns is indescribably grand. There is also the sacred Lake of Karnak; and not far away lie the ruins of the Temple of Luxor.

The temples and tombs of Thebes are the next objects of general interest on the passage up the Nile. Here are the two Colossi, the most celebrated of which is the one known as the vocal Memnon, so called from a tradition that it emitted sounds when the sun's rays fell upon it. The temple of King Amenhotep, near by, has almost disappeared. The temple of Koorneh, dedicated to Seti I, is full of interesting sculptures and inscriptions. Further on, in the Valley of Bab-el-Molook, are the tombs of the Kings and Queens of the 19th and 20th dynasties, now lit up by electric light. Here is the wonderful sepulchre of Tut-ank-amén. Lastly

comes the curious temple of Dary-el-Bahru, which is different in general plan from any other in Egypt.

On the opposite bank of the Nile stands the Rameseum, which in elegance and architectural beauty excels almost all other Egyptian monuments. The gigantic statue of Rameses II is the largest in Egypt, weighing over 1,000 tons, and it is to be wondered at that such enormous masses of stone could have been transported and erected. Near by stands the fine tomb of Queen Nefertari, favourite wife of Rameses III. Medinet Abou is one of the four great temples referred to by ancient writers.

Still further up the Nile stands the Temple of Denderah, which conveys to the mind an impression that can never be obliterated of the colossal magnificence of Egyptian monuments. Near Baliana, stands Abydos, and the famous temples of Seti and Rameses. The ruins are very extensive and have been carefully excavated. The halls, vaulted chambers, columns, and inscriptions, in the Temple of Seti are very impressive.

On the east bank of the Nile, above the town of Assiout, with its curious bazaars, stands Gebel-Aboofayada. Near to the summit of this mountain are several caves, in which large numbers of mummified crocodiles and other animals, as well as some human remains, have been found. Near to Beni-Hassan, on the same side of the river, there are numerous tombs, the principal of which are those of Améni, Knum-Hotep, and Speos Artemedon, notable for some of the earliest specimens of Proto-Doric and Lotus columns. The neighbouring village was destroyed by Ibrahim Pasha on account of the insurrections which were constantly occurring against Government authority. Between this point on the Nile bank and Wasta (see map) the points of interest are, the rocky mountain of Gebel-el-Tayr, the ancient Coptic convent "El Bebaui," and the town of Beni Soof. Then comes the Pyramid of Maydooni, known as the false Pyramid, and magnificent views are obtained, especially at sunset, over the Libyan Desert.

From Bedrechin, some few miles from Cairo, it is an easy ride over the desert to the site of ancient Memphis. Here are the colossal recumbent statues of Rameses the Great, the Pyramids of Sakkara, the Serapeum (tombs of the Sacred Bulls),

the Mastibi of Ti, and the Pyramids of Oonas.

CAIRO.

A curious mixture of ancient palaces and modern boulevards, this city, with its million inhabitants, stands at the foot of the last height of the Mokattam Hills, on the banks of the Nile, a few miles above the commencement of the Delta Region. It is about 120

and Africa, but it does not take the traveller long to discover that the administration of the city has been in Western hands.

Among the sites of Cairo, the Citadel merits first mention. It is the most prominent object in the general view of the city, and is one of its most interesting monuments. This fortress was founded by Saladin, in 1176, and is built on a rock in the south-east quarter. Within the walls are barracks, a



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

A DINKA PLACE OF SACRIFICE

miles south-east of Alexandria and 80 miles west of Suez. To both of these places, as well as with Port Said, it is connected by railway.

Cairo is a vast Oriental city of palaces, mosques, minarets, old Arabian-Saracenic, flat-topped houses, palms, modern European boulevards, Government offices, residences, hotels, shops, barracks, theatres, gardens, bandstands and cinemas. Its population is a mixture of the races of Europe, the Orient,

beautiful mosque, a Royal Palace, Joseph's Well—260 ft. deep—from which water was obtained for the garrison, an aqueduct built by Saladin, and the causeway in which, on March 1st, 1811, occurred the massacre of the Mamelukes (*q.v.*).

Old Cairo possessed 400 mosques, but many of these have now disappeared. There are, however, still a large number with exteriors surpassed only by their interiors. The University of El Azhar, founded in A.D.

972, is the principal seat of Koranic learning. The residence of the Sultan is the Abdin Palace, which is faced by a fine modern square, and among other Government buildings the official residence of the British Representative, the Courts of Justice, the various departmental offices of the Civil Service, the War Office, and the Ministerial Offices are the most important, although perhaps the most interesting are the Museum of Antiquities, with its jewels from Tutankhamen's Tomb; the Arab Museum, with its famous collection of mosque-lamps, the Mousky of quaint bazaars, the Blue Mosque, and the great Mosque of Mohammed Ali.

It is beyond the scope of this article to catalogue the sights of Cairo, sufficient to say that the city is lighted by electricity, served by tramways, possesses many good hotels, and yet retains much of the glamour of the East, in its mosques and thronged native bazaars. Beyond the city, over the Nile bridge, a broad carriage road leads to the famous Pyramids and the Sphinx.

ALEXANDRIA.

Of the ancient city of Alexandria, founded 332 years B.C. by Alexander the Great, and situated about 14 miles west of the most westerly mouth of the Nile, little now remains. The more modern seaport, half

Oriental and half European, situated a little to the north of the magnificent old city, of which Omer, general of the Caliph Omar, in a letter to his master after the taking of the city in A.D. 40, said: "It is impossible for me to enumerate the variety of its riches and beauty, and I shall content myself with observing that it contains 4,000 palaces, 4,000 baths, 400 theatres or places of amusement, 12,000 shops, for the sale of vegetables, and 40,000 tributary Jews."—(Gibbon.)

Modern Alexandria is a busy seaport uniting the sea-borne commerce of Europe and North-East Africa. It has a population of over 570,000, and its bazaars are perpetually thronged by mixed races. Of the foreign commerce of Egypt over three-quarters passes through the Port of Alexandria. It now contains only two palaces, Ras-el-Tin and Montaza. It is the centre of the cotton trade, but has little of the magnificence of the old city, which was the capital of Egypt for over a thousand years.

The total length of railway lines in operation is about 2,500 miles. There are over 3,320 post offices, with about 150,000 miles of telegraph and telephone wires. About 26,000,000 tons of shipping annually pass through the Suez Canal, which forms a separate zone under direct European control.



THE SUDAN

THE Sudan is as large as British India. It stretches from Wadi Halfa, on the northern frontier (with Egypt), to Uganda, British East Africa, on the southern frontier—a distance of over 1,250 miles; and from Darfur on the west to Abyssinia on the east—a distance of over 1,000 miles, giving it a total area of over 1,000,000 square miles. At the time of the reconquest there was scarcely the raw material with which to commence the task of nation-making. The sixteen years of Dervish rule almost depopulated large portions of the country, and reduced the remainder to the lowest stages of barbarism. In Egypt and the Sudan, as in India to a lesser degree, there is a great disparity in the density of the population. Egypt is, if anything, over-populated, while the Sudan is miserably under-populated. The Egyptian fellaheen are laborious whereas the nomadic Arabs of the Northern Sudan, in many cases, disdain work, and the blacks of the southern equatorial provinces are the acme of laziness.

ASPECT OF THE DESERT.

Although the Sudan offers a variety of both scenery and climate, it may, for descriptive purposes, be divided into two portions, with the 13th or 14th parallel of latitude as broadly indicative of the change. In the northern portion, from Wadi Halfa to some miles south of Khartoum (the capital), rain seldom falls, and the country consists of scorching rocks and stones, blinding deserts of hot sand, stretching away, flickering, until lost in the unreal haze of the mirage, with seldom a living thing in sight, except perhaps a few scorpions, white ants, or thin wiry Bedouins gracefully swaying along on, or walking beside their "ships of the desert." Little grows but tufts of coarse grass, mimosa

thorn, sapless dompalms, and the empty Dead Sea fruit. Wells are few and far between, although false hopes are often raised by the mirage—pictures in the brazen heavens of still, turquoise-blue lakes and shining white palaces, which "never let you near" and fade as the sun sinks behind the stony horizon or the ridges of sand. The violet shadows of night creep over the dried-up wastes, faster they come and deeper the hue, the air cools rapidly and the desert sleeps with a soundness appalling.

For some miles on each side of the Nile there is, however, fertile land, water-wheels, and villages, but stray many miles from the slowly widening belt of living earth, with its life-giving river and fields, its railway line from Wadi Halfa to Khartoum, and the desert will be your companion.

THE EQUATORIAL REGION.

South of the 14th parallel, however, the whole aspect of the country undergoes a gradual change. Rain falls in considerable quantities during the summer months, while camels are seldom bred south of Khartoum. Although much of Kordofan is desert waste, to the south lie extensive pastures and well-wooded hills. The nomadic Arabs give place, first to the once wild Baggara, the chosen of the Khalifa, then to the innumerable tribes of cattle-owning negroes in the Equatorial Province, which was at one time the happy hunting ground of the slave raiders. The Nile and other rivers of this province, and more especially in the Bahr el Ghazal, are often lost amid vast swamps, marshes and floating islands; then, while still in Sudan territory, they free themselves from the "sudd" and flow between the fertile lands and dense forests of Equatorial Africa.



Photo by kind permission of Major R. Whitbread

SHILLUKS OF THE UPPER NILE

The most fertile portions of the Sudan lie between the Blue and White Niles, and along the Abyssinian border, where the land is watered by the Athara River when in flood ; but there are thousands of acres elsewhere that do and thousands of acres more that will, when properly irrigated—yield valuable crops, especially cotton.

The people of the Upper and Lower Sudan vary greatly. In the towns of both sections there are congeries of the races of South Europe, as well as both Arabs and Negroes. These town dwellers often lack the moral qualities of their brethren who roam in the desert and jungle. The black people of the Southern Sudan are mostly heathens, while the Arabs and races of the north are Mohammedans.

CLIMATE.

The climate, like the country and people, changes slowly at the dividing parallel. Northwards from Khartoum the climate is hot, dry, and by no means unhealthy for Europeans, although somewhat enervating during the summer season, while south of Khartoum it becomes tropical ; in the "Sudd Region" of the Nile Valley and in the Equatorial Province the humidity of the atmosphere is considerable during the rainy season, but comparatively healthy during the dry weather (December to March). The rainy season varies in duration in different parts of the country, but in the more important agricultural districts, such as the Gezira, it commences on the average in July and ends in October, the heaviest fall as a rule being in August and September. Around Khartoum the hottest months are May, June and September, when the temperature may reach 112–115 deg. F. in the shade, but the atmosphere is so dry that it can be borne without great discomfort. The temperature during the hot season in many parts of the desert is even greater, and it has a somewhat debilitating effect on Europeans. From the middle of October to early April, Khartoum and the Nile Valley to the north is an ideal winter resort, for glorious sunshine with steady northerly breezes can be relied upon for day after day, and the sunsets are gorgeous in the extreme. Even in the hottest months of the year the Northern Sudan enjoys cool nights, so that light clothing needs to be supplemented when the sun

goes down, and a night's refreshing sleep is nearly always possible.

Before commencing to describe the country itself and its curiously interesting sights and progressing industries, it is advisable to say something of the means by which the live heart of the Sudan is entered, for the desert encompasses it on all sides except the south, where lie Uganda and the dense forests of Central Africa. There are two main railway lines ; one runs from Cairo south to Khartoum and is known as the "Nile Valley Line," and the other runs west from Port Sudan on the Red Sea to the capital.

NILE VALLEY LINE.

During the early seventies of the last century the Khedive Ismail conceived the project of a railway in what was then the Egyptian Sudan, to run southwards from Wadi Halfa with branches to Khartoum and El Obeid. However, after 33 miles of line had been constructed to Sarras, lack of funds necessitated the abandonment of the scheme.

During the Nile Expedition of 1885–6, the line was extended from Sarras to Akasha, a village about 86 miles from Wadi Halfa, but on the retirement of the Expedition from Khartoum this extension was pulled up and Sarras became once more the southern terminus.

In 1896, when the troops advanced into the Dongola Province, the construction of the railway was recommenced, and on 4th May, 1897, it reached Kerma at the head of the cataracts, whence the Nile is navigable by steamers for 200 miles up stream. During the winter of 1896–7, preparations were made for the construction of the desert railway from Halfa to Abu Hamed, a small but strategically important town at the head of the great bend of the Nile. Abu Hamed was captured on the 8th August, 1897, by Anglo-Egyptian troops who had advanced *via* the Kerma line and by steamer, the head of the desert railway being then about 80 miles away. After the fall of the town, railhead was pushed forward with greater energy than ever, and reached Abu Hamed on 31st October, 1897. With little delay it was advanced to the Atbara, where its terminus remained during the Omdurman campaign of September, 1898.

In November of the same year preparations were made for the completion of the



A SHILLUK WARRIOR

Photo, H. S. Cowley

Elaborate hair-dressing is the male Dinka's only extravagance

railway to Khartoum. The River Atbara, which, during its flood, brings down a volume of water comparable with that of the Nile, was originally crossed by a temporary wooden trestle bridge, but a permanent steel bridge was erected as quickly as possible and opened for traffic on 26th August, 1899. This bridge was reconstructed in 1911. Railhead was pushed forward simultaneously and reached Khartoum North on the last day of December, 1899.

A bridge 660 yards long has since been constructed over the Blue Nile, and trains now cross direct into Khartoum. The railway has been extended south of Khartoum to Wad Medani and Sennar, and thence westerly to Kosti and El Obeid. The White Nile is crossed near Kosti by a railway and foot-bridge.

RED SEA LINE.

Viewed from an economic standpoint, Khartoum lies in the extreme north of the Sudan, and it is by the development of the Southern Provinces that its trade will be increased—such as the gum-producing district of Kordofan, the cotton-growing areas of the Gezira, Karsala and other parts, and ultimately, it may be hoped, the forests of the Upper Nile.

The completion of the railway from Wadi Halfa to Khartoum placed the capital of the Sudan in direct communication by rail and river with Cairo and Alexandria, a distance of 1,480 miles, involving four transshipments. The expense and inconvenience of such a route for commercial purposes made further progress a difficult matter, and steps were taken in 1901 to secure some better and cheaper route by which the commodities necessary for real development—machinery, coal, timber, and the like—could enter the country. The solution of the difficulty lay in the construction of a railway from the Nile to a harbour on the Red Sea.

Care had to be exercised to obtain an easy-graded line across the range of hills running parallel to the coast from the Abyssinian plateau to the Gulf of Suez. The route finally selected was one which involved no gradient steeper than 1 in 100 and no curve sharper than $17\frac{1}{2}$ chains radius.

Suakin, where facilities already existed for landing materials, was made the terminus of

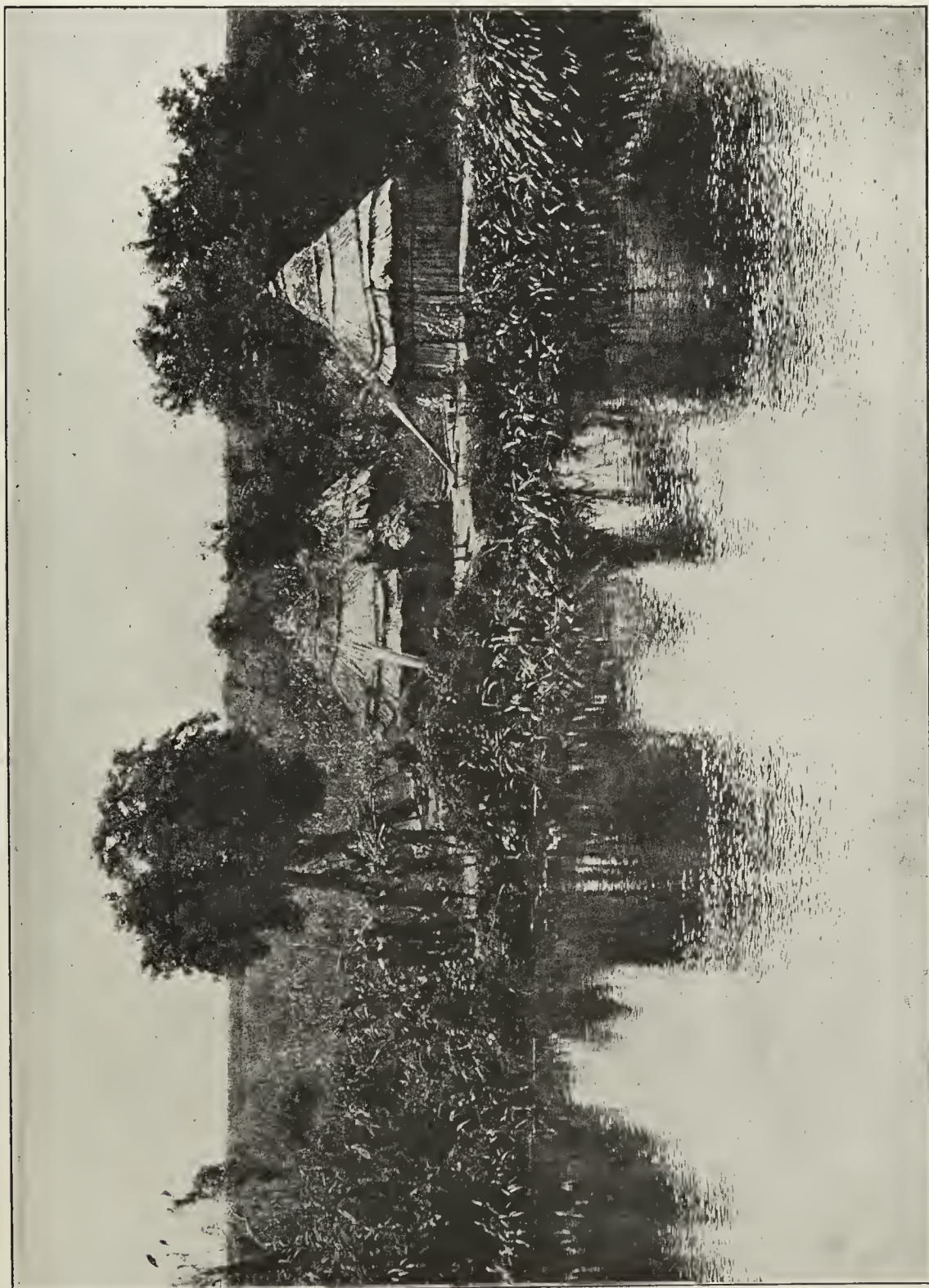
the railway, while the junction of the East Coast and Nile lines is fixed at Atbara about a mile north of the Atbara bridge. Construction was commenced from both ends simultaneously in August, 1904, and on 15th October, 1905, the railheads met, 305 miles of line having been constructed.

While the Nile Red Sea Railway was in hand, a branch line was laid from Abu Hamed to Kareima to tap the Dongola Province, bringing the total mileage open in January, 1906, to 1,040 miles.

The headquarters of the railway, the central workshops and stores, were finally established at Atbara Junction. Port Sudan (some 50 miles north of Suakin) was then selected as the chief port of the country, by reason of its greater natural advantages compared with Suakin, and a modern harbour, equipped with the latest type of cranes and plant, has been constructed. The railway was extended south of Khartoum to Sennar, then westwards to El Obeid. An extension of the Red Sea Line was next undertaken. A branch was constructed from Haiya Junction to Kassala (218 miles) and Gedaref (135 miles), near the frontier of Abyssinia. This line is being continued in a westerly direction, so as to join the Khartoum-El Obeid line near Sennar. The total mileage open to traffic, excluding sidings, in 1930 was 1,760 miles.

RIVER TRANSPORT.

In addition to the rapidly extending railway system there is a fairly complete river transport service connecting the more outlying portions of the country with railhead. In the north, the 208 miles of river between Shellal and Halfa link together the Egyptian and Sudanese railway systems. Steamers on this reach form part of the Sudan railway service. The river also connects the northern parts of the Dongola Province, where important agricultural developments in wheat-growing are now taking place, with the Kerima branch of the Sudan railways. South of Khartoum a fortnightly service of steamers to Juba (1,088 miles from Khartoum) is maintained throughout the year. The Upper Nile and Mongalla Provinces (107,600 square miles) are entirely dependent on this and other services for transport to and from Khartoum and the north. During the tourist season (November to March) a



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
A NATIVE FISHING VILLAGE IN THE MIDDLE OF THE SUDD (OR SWAMP) REGION OF THE UPPER NILE

special tourist steamer is sent weekly through this portion of primitive Africa.

Steamers are also sent at fixed intervals up the Sobat River, when it is open to traffic from May to December, as far as Gambela (880 miles). At this point the Government maintains a trading station on a site leased from the Abyssinian Government, which serves as a point of exchange for traffic between the Sudan and a large part of South-west Abyssinia, to which this Nile route gives the cheapest and most effective means of access.

There is also a regular monthly service to Meshra El Rek in the Bahir el Ghazal Province (780 miles), and from July to September steamers get as far as Wan, the capital of that province. The Blue Nile is only open to steamer traffic for about six months in the year. During that period a fortnightly service, with Wad Medani as a base, is run to Roseries (275 miles), and also a weekly service between Sennar and Abu Naama. In addition, tugs and barges are provided for commercial purposes and for the movement of troops and military stores, as well as numerous special steamers for one kind or another of the numerous requirements of the Government. The journey up the White Nile from Khartoum to Nyanza has become a favourite tourist route through Central Africa. The climate is excellent during the dry season and the steamers are provided with ice-making plant, electric fans and light, and every comfort for tropical travel.

Other branches of railway enterprise in the Sudan are : (1) the provision of complete land and river transport services, equipment and guides, for big-game shooting parties, explorers and others ; (2) a series of hotels and rest houses throughout the country, with the fine Grand Hotel at Khartoum, as a centre ; and (3) a romantic Desert Camp for tourists coming south from Egypt, situated near Wadi Halfa.

PORT SUDAN.

This is the chief port of the Sudan, and is situated a few miles north of its only rival, Suakin, on the Red Sea. A Commission visited both these places in 1904 in order to decide which possessed the best harbour and offered the most facilities for the construction of a large railway terminus and port for the Red Sea line from Khartoum, and Sheik el

Barghut (name derived from a tomb)—now known as *Port Sudan*—was chosen. In 1909 the new and well-equipped harbour was opened by the Khedive.

Port Sudan possesses quays about 2,000 ft. in length, capable of berthing five large vessels simultaneously, and the harbour is well protected and the anchorage good. The town and quays are lighted by electricity, there is a Government Railway Hotel, and all the appurtenances of a modern town. The average annual volume of shipping entering and clearing amounts to about 2,000,000 tons.

KHARTOUM.

In 1884 the present capital of the Sudan had a population of over 50,000 and possessed many fine buildings. In the following year, however, the order went forth from the Khalfah Abdullah that the town was to be evacuated and destroyed. For twelve years, from 1886 to 1898, Khartoum remained a peopleless ruin, then came the final battle—Omdurman—in the reconquest of the Sudan, which was followed immediately by the rebuilding of the city ; and now it has a population of over 31,000, and possesses many buildings, including a cathedral, mosque, hotels, Government offices, schools and hospitals. There are several fine metalled roads, avenues and public gardens. It is served with trams, electric light, bridges, and a good water-supply ; and many of the private houses have beautiful semi-tropical gardens on the ground which was once strewn with beheaded and mutilated bodies.

Old Khartoum was spoken of by European travellers between 1860–70 as a "hateful spot," with "a fatal climate," and "cholera, typhus and other fevers spread through the town, decimating the population." Such is the change wrought by civilised government and modern engineering skill that New Khartoum has a death rate of only 9 per 1,000, against 50 per 1,000 in Delhi, the capital of the Indian Empire, and the average of 15.6 per 1,000 over the whole of England and Wales. Malaria is now almost non-existent and for many years there have been no serious epidemics of tropical or contagious diseases.

Khartoum stands at an elevation of 1,255 feet above sea level, on the wedge of country which divides the Blue and White Niles. The



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

A NATIVE DANCE ON THE UPPER NILE

two rivers join forces a few miles further north, forming the main Nile stream at Omdurman. From October to April the climate of Khartoum may be considered ideal.

Among the sights of Khartoum the Governor-General's Palace, where Gordon lived and died, is the first place to which most travellers' footsteps will lead. It is built on the same foundations as the old one, of which the ground floor remained, and is a building of some pretence. On entering from the river front the traveller should turn to the right in the corridor, and high up on the wall that faces him he will see a brass plate which marks the spot where, on the old palace stairs, Gordon was killed on 26th January, 1885. Since Gordon's day the gardens behind the palace have been improved and considerably enlarged, but many of the trees and plants which were there still remain, in particular the rose-tree, near to

the corner of the south-west wing, which is known as "Gordon's Rose Tree."

On leaving the Palace a visit will be made to a Shrine from a temple at Meroë, recently placed at the back of the War Office. Then ride past the Government workshops and along the river front to Gordon College, and the spacious new barracks of the British garrison, thence to Gordon's old fortifications and past the barracks of the Sudanese regiment, to the villages where the native population are quartered. The visitor will notice that each tribe has certain characteristics in its style of habitation. There are in all twenty different tribes, including Shilluk, Dinka, Bornawi, Gebelawi, Fonawi, and other Baggara tribes, with a total population of 4,000.

From the villages proceed to Khedive's Avenue and Gordon Gardens, where an imposing statue has been erected to this

great soldier's memory. Close to the Gordon Statue stands the new Cathedral Church of All Saints, Khartoum, which was consecrated on 26th January, 1912, by the Lord Bishop of London. The Cathedral is built in the form of a Latin cross, the north transept forming the Gordon Memorial Chapel. The principal entrance is at the western end, the doorway being at the level of the ground outside, with an upper flight of steps inside leading to the inner porch. The material used in the building, yellow and pale red sandstone, was brought from Jebel Auli, near Khartoum, and the floor of the sanctuary is covered with Sudanese marble.

West of the Palace is a block of Government offices, which, fifteen years ago, accommodated the whole of the Military and

Civil departments, the Legal staff, and the offices of the Governor of Khartoum; but now will only house the Military Department, the Civil Secretary's Department, and the Financial Secretary's Department. West again, with a pretty garden in front, is the Post Office; immediately to the rear, across the road (Khedivial Avenue), stands the National Bank. Further west again, on the north side of the Khedivial Avenue, comes another group of Government offices, and then the imposing block of the new Law Courts, Civil and Mohammedan, which were opened in 1908 by H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught, then the offices of the Irrigation Department, and, marked by two flags, the Mudirieh, or head offices of the Province of Khartoum. The traveller should not fail to



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
A NATIVE DOCTOR AT WORK



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
GROUND HORN BILL

Generally considered one of the most ugly birds in the world

visit the Gordon College, the road to which lies along the river front. There is a small museum of antiquities and physiological and biological collections at the College, but its most important function is the instilling into the youth of the Sudan some tincture of humane letters and of the crafts which may enable them to assist the material prosperity of the country. Not the least of the proficiencies to which they attain is a considerable skill in the football field.

OMDURMAN.

This great African metropolis—a purely native town—the erstwhile capital of the Mahdist Empire, is situated only a few miles north of Khartoum, the present capital of the Sudan, and can be reached in a few minutes by means of a bridge across the White Nile. It has a population of about 90,000, and is the greatest native city in Africa. It is known to most of the tribes

from the Cape to Cairo and from Sierre Leone to Mombasa.

From the upper deck of the Nile steamer an admirable idea is obtained of this great African city. For seven miles along the shore of the river stretches the mud town; a seemingly endless vista of sun-scorched dwellings, immense, tortuous, inconsequent as the mind of the native Empire-builder by whom it was conceived, its vague extremities merging almost imperceptibly into the surrounding desert. On nearing the landing-place attention is concentrated on the fore-shore which slopes easily down to the river from the market, and where dhurra and other grain are stacked and cargoes of timber are being unloaded from a fleet of native boats, whose tapering masts and spreading canvas dot the river northwards as far as the eye can see.

On landing an alien note is struck by the discovery of a tramway which, passing the Beit-el-Amana and Mosque Square, reaches the "Central Station" in the heart of the town, and from there proceeds south to where a ferry joins Khartoum North with Omdurman, thus completing the circuit of the three towns. Spurning the somewhat commonplace comfort of the tramway (which, however, is much favoured by the native population) and walking, motoring or riding parallel to the river, the traveller passes through the grain and gum market, a motley collection of straw shanties on both sides of the road, to the south gate, and a few hundred yards further on, reaches the Beit-el-Amana, or Khalifa's Store. This is surrounded by a high, strongly-built wall, which was built in an incredibly short time by forced labour. A few minutes' ride brings the traveller to the Mosque Square, a huge, walled enclosure where, in the Mahdi's and Khalifa's time, a great part of the population were gathered daily for prayer. The Mahdi's Minbar, or pulpit, as well as his tomb, have been dismantled, the former entirely, the latter partially. In the south-east corner of the square is the Khalifa's Palace, built with bricks taken from Gordon's Palace at Khartoum about six months after the siege.

Going southwards, along a broad road to the centre of the town, the next and perhaps most interesting of all "sights" is reached. It is the "Suk" or market. The main Suk is a series of mud booths with common pathways leading one into another, covered in with matting, and with ramifications unknown and unimagined by western architects. Each trade, whose merchants are in many cases of the same race, retains a special locality. The whole Suk is admirably clean and the visitor can spend hours inspecting the various wares without being accosted by the indescribable odours so common in other Eastern cities.

The main interest undoubtedly centres in the people, among whom every African nationality and tribe is represented. Those acquainted with the East cannot fail to be impressed by their extraordinary decorum and personal cleanliness, and by the entire absence of that annoying and persistent accompaniment to peregrinations in native towns, the mendicant. There is none of the shouting or extravagance of gesture that one is accustomed to in the East. Everything is subdued and restrained. The gesture is limited to the minimum requisite for precise explanation. The bargaining is carried on quietly and without loud protestations. Salutations are exchanged courteously and often in silence. There are no importunate sellers of their wares. Each man takes a pride in showing his handiwork, and, should the visitor manifest an intelligent interest in it, will enter into long and eager discussion with regard to it, but with all deference and courtesy he will leave the impression that the sale of any of it is a matter of comparative indifference to him—a very adequate testimony to the general prosperity and contentment of the native merchant population.

Close to Omdurman is the junction of the two Niles, the rivers running side by side for some considerable distance before merging into the Nile proper, enabling a view to be obtained of the curious spectacle of the contrasted colours of the waters. Near the meeting of the Niles is the *Battle-*

field of Kerreri, where the 21st Lancers charged the Dervish army, which was hiding in a Khor. At Gebel Surgham there is a monument to this gallant regiment.

PYRAMIDS AND TEMPLES OF MEROE.

About 200 miles north of Khartoum, on the banks of the Nile, stand the unearthed ruins of Meroë, the ancient capital of Queen Candace. The pyramids, like those near Jebel-Barkal, are much smaller and more acute in angle than those in Egypt. They are built of stone quarried in the neighbour-



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
WOMEN OF THE BAHR-EL-GHAZAL
Note the protruding lips

hood, and have long been recognised as marking the burial place of Ethiopian Kings and Queens, whose royal city of Meroë could not be far to seek.

The most remarkable building is the Temple of the Sun. This is an historic feature of Meroë, and is mentioned by Herodotus, who described it as situated in a "green meadow outside the city," a description which still holds good. It seems to have been built by Aspelut, about B.C. 600. The building rises in terraces, the lowest of which is a substantial platform surrounded by a cloister. In the centre of all, and at the highest part of the structure, is the sanctuary, with the remains of an obelisk and solar emblem. Part of the floor of blue and yellow glazed tiles is still to be seen. The proportions of the architecture and the scenes of triumph sculptured on the outer walls are also noteworthy. Close by may be seen the numerous tomb-mounds of the necropolis; and among these, at the south end, are two small temples or shrines, one dedicated to the Lion-god, the other to the Sacred Cow.

On the west side of the railway are the ruins of the artisans' dwellings and work shops. Further on the pylon of the great Temple of Amon is reached. This splendid building is now completely uncovered, and the visitor may walk through its many-columned halls. It dates from about B.C. 300. Its axis is 450 ft. in length; and there may be seen a granite obelisk (repaired) inscribed in Meroitic writing, a sculptured stone dais, a place for the sacrifice of animals, the high Altar, decorated with reliefs, and other instructive features of the building. This was the place of the oracle of Amon, whose sacred tomb-chamber may be seen behind the altar.

Climbing the ruins at the western end of the temple, the path leads over the great stone wall of the ancient city, and in front are the foundations of two royal palaces. In the middle of one are the remains of the royal treasure chamber, near which two vases filled with golden nuggets and dust, as well as royal jewels of the time of Aspelut, were found during the excavation. To the north is a columned chamber, the walls of which are decorated with frescoes showing royal personages in gorgeous robes, and prisoners.

In front of the doorway, hidden in a pocket of clean sand, Professor Garstang discovered, in December, 1910, an Imperial Roman bronze head, of wonderful workmanship and in perfect condition. This is a good example of Roman art in the age of Augustus, and it probably represents that Emperor, though it is not exactly like any of his known portraits. The discovery, in 1912, of a small Roman temple in the vicinity suggests that the image of the Emperor was actually adored by a small community of Roman settlers. The explorer himself believes it probable that the Roman expedition under Petronius actually occupied the city for a short period.

The most remarkable discovery has been that of the Royal Baths (or "Gymnasium") of Queen Candace's time. There may be seen, in their original positions, the statues, frescoes, glazed tiles, medallions and other sculptures which adorned the façade of a large swimming bath. The water inlets and aqueducts can also be traced. Near at hand, a small semi-circular chamber with three ornamented seats represent the tepidarium. This building is the nearest to the river.

The whole length of the wall of the Royal City, which has now been laid bare, can be followed, as well as some of the original streets and buildings, among them the Palace of Neteg Amon.

BEHEN.

On the left bank of the Nile, a little above Halfa (900 miles from Khartoum) are the remains of the ancient river port of Behen. It was a place of great importance, being at the end of the second cataract, and the point at which merchandise could be again transported by river. Behen was occupied in very early days, the town being founded in the time of the 12th Dynasty, and the remains prove that it had a continuous history for more than 2,000 years.

The chief temple, which was excavated on behalf of the Sudan Government, is a very fine example of 18th Dynasty work. The coloured reliefs—especially those of Thothmes the Second before the Horus of Behen, in the innermost shrine—are particularly well preserved. The inner temple was begun by Thothmes II and continued by Thothmes III, whose inscription is to be found on one of the columns at the entrance, but later

rulers, apparently of the Ramessid time, changed the disposition of the columns in the fore-court, and spoilt the symmetry of the original plan.

A massive buttressed wall runs close by the north side of the chief temple, and extends some distance to the west. Both temples have houses round two sides. They have three separate and distinct floor levels, one above, one at, and one below the floor of the present temple, and date from the 12th to the 18th Dynasties.

DONGOLA PROVINCE.

The first to be recaptured from the Mahdi of the fourteen provinces (excluding Khartoum, the capital) into which the British Sudan has been divided, is one of considerable fertility, and also has some interesting temples and pyramids. Dongola, the capital, is a native mud town of some few thousand inhabitants, situated on the Nile where it curves to the west between Abu Hamed and Halfa. At Jebel Barkal, near the capital, are the remains of several temples situated at the foot of the mountain.

This site, which was named Napata, was the religious capital of ancient Ethiopia, and was the centre from which a colony of Theban priests spread the worship of Amon. The temples were built, unfortunately, of very soft sandstone, which has suffered much from the wind-blown sand, and the whole site was most unscientifically excavated about forty years ago; much has therefore perished irretrievably. The largest temple now in existence belongs to the Roman period, as also do the pyramids on a ridge south of the mountain, but the ram in front of the temple and a fine colossus between the great temple and the rock-cut temple of Tirhaka date back to the new empire. The famous Ethiopian inscriptions now in Cairo were found in front of the inner pylon of the great temple. At Merowi, on the right bank, are the remains of the old Government buildings which were built on the top of a mediæval Christian fortress, which in turn had been constructed out of more ancient materials; among these an altar inscribed with the cartouche Piankhi is to be seen. Opposite to this, behind the present capital of the province, is a very extensive site, now called Sanum Abu Dom, which in the Ethiopian

and Roman periods seems to have been the secular capital of the kingdom.

NAGAA AND MUSSAWARAT.

The most perfect ruins in the Sudan are situated in the desert at some distance from the river, between the Atbara and the Nile, and date from the old Ethiopian kingdom which is generally associated with the name of Queen Candace. The larger of the two sites is at Nagaa. Here, besides the ruined heaps of several houses and temples, there are three principal temple groups in a good state of preservation. One group lies close to the hills, on the tops of which are traces of the quarry where the stone for the buildings was cut. A second more complex temple with many reliefs, an avenue of rams, and a ramp, stands on the edge of one of the lower slopes. Out on the plain, beyond a well which was made in 1905, are two other temples; one in the Roman style of the second or third century A.D., and the other in the Egyptian style, but probably of the same date. To the east of the site are the traces of a great reservoir, and there is a cemetery just north of it. To the south of the site is a wide stretch of soil which is regularly cultivated during the rainy season, and explains the presence of the ancient town.

The ruins of Mussawarat are even more interesting because more rare than those at Nagaa. They are most picturesquely situated in a basin-like valley, and very graceful both in style and colours. They consist of a great complex of buildings which have been variously described as an ancient academy, a Château de Chasse, a sanatorium, and a country palace. The present writer regards the last identification as almost certain; the low walls of the enclosure which surround the principal buildings appear to have been built as pens for herds or flocks. The central building, on a raised platform, with little towers at the corners and a colonnade in front, would then be the king's principal divan, and the buildings connected with it by long covered passages and ramps would be either temples or harem quarters. The building shows traces of reconstruction, but belongs practically to a single period, the second or the third century A.D. One short inscription in Meroitic characters is on the



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
WAR DRUMS USED BY THE NATIVES OF THE BAHR-EL-GHAZAL

back wall of the central buildings, and on another of the buildings some names in Greek characters show that Christians subsequently settled here, probably as hermits. To Cailliaud, the French explorer, who accompanied the army sent to conquer the Sudan by Mahommed Ali, is due the honour of first having made these sites known to European scholars.

THE SOUTHERN SUDAN.

South of Khartoum lies the huge tract of fertile country known generally as the Southern Sudan, but distinct from the Equatorial Province, which lies further south and borders Uganda and the Congo State. The Southern Sudan includes the great provinces of Sennar and Kordofan, and the railway has been extended 430 miles to the south of Khartoum, passing through Wad Medani to Sennar, where it turns from the Blue Nile and cuts sharply across the country westward to Kosti on the White Nile. Proceeding further west it now reaches El Obeid, thus opening up a most important country for commercial development, from which very large supplies of grain, gum, food-stuffs, cotton and cattle are being exported.

Wad Medani is an interesting and large native town, with conical straw-roofed huts, or *tukls*, laid out in streets on a regular plan. It enjoys a considerable trade in local agricultural produce. The Palace of the Governor of the Province is situated on the banks of the Blue Nile and faces beautiful gardens. In these gardens rich tropical plants are found side by side with those that flourish in the home country. The population consists of Fung and Hamag blacks, with the addition of numbers of other Arab tribes.

From Sennar, a ride of a few miles through the forest—the wild home of numberless monkeys—brings the traveller to the once populous town of Old Sennar, now lying in ruins. The Mahdi twice laid siege to the town without success, but a final attempt by the forces of the Khalifa resulted in its destruction and the massacre of almost the whole of its population.

Kosti is rapidly taking an important position, and lying on the bank of the White Nile is served by both railway and steamer. The river is crossed a few miles before reaching the town by a bridge, 500 yards long, and



Photo by kind permission of Major R. Whitbread
A BELLE OF THE BAHR-EL-GHAZAL

of eight fixed spans and one swing span, a fine piece of work. One is here on the fringe of the wild country, and in the busy grain-market are found natives of many southern tribes, Habbantias, Danaglas, Dinkas, and, occasionally Shilluks. In the early morning they ride in, mounted on bullocks and armed with native spears. Fierce in appearance and fierce by nature, they are now docile and peaceful in the knowledge that they are safeguarded in their business vocations. Near the town is Abba Island, famous as the home of the Mahdi, where he laid and carried out the first plans towards the conquest of the country and its attendant horrors.

Some idea will be obtained of the effect of the railway upon the country which it opens up when it is realised that the many thousands of tons of gum exported from the Kordofan Province now reach Khartoum in a day and a half compared with a fortnight's transport by camel which was formerly necessary.

ON THE UPPER NILE.

Immediately after leaving Khartoum in one of the steamers of the Government Service the river widens considerably to some two or three miles, which gives it a lake-like appearance. The banks are very low and flat, and large flocks of sheep and cattle may be seen grazing on them. Geese, pelican, and thousands of waterfowl are met with, whilst on nearly every mudbank reposes a crocodile. Twenty-one miles from Khartoum, on the right bank, the volcanic hill of Jebel Auli appears, and a few miles further on the flat-topped Jebel Mandara on the left bank. Still steaming on, the large village of Geteina, inhabited mostly by Danagla Arabs, is reached, and from here the banks of the river become high and sandy. A few mimosa and acacia trees are passed, as well as occasional sand hills. During the time of low Nile, mud islands appear, on which, the soil being very rich, crops are quickly grown. Beyond, again, dense growths of mimosas and acacias are seen, and at Jebel Arashkol, about 95 miles, a high hill with well defined peaks, can be seen in the distance.

About 110 miles from Khartoum, El Dueim is reached. Here, on the river banks, strips of cultivation appear, and the west bank is covered with dense acacia forest.

Large quantities of gum are brought here from Kordofan for transhipment to Khartoum. Kawa, at 131 miles, is next reached. The houses, or *tukls*, are well built, with conical straw roofs. The inhabitants are mostly of the Danagla and Habbania tribes, who appear to be fairly prosperous. They are mostly engaged in agriculture—cultivating barley, wheat and onions.

Soon afterwards the north end of Abba Island appears in sight. This island, whence the Mahdi originated his crusade, is about 28 miles in length, and is thickly wooded. An occasional Dinka may now be seen near the river. Fachi Shoya (163 miles) is passed, and here can be seen the ruins of the Mahdi's house, where Mahomed Ahmed followed his trade of boat building. Here also was the starting-point of the expedition which ended in the defeat and death of the Khalifa Abdulla by the Sirdar in 1899.

Kosti is reached at a distance of 175 miles from Khartoum, and on the east bank, opposite the south end of Abba Island, there is a Government station. A change will now be noticed in the country. North of Abba Island the riverain inhabitants are mostly cultivators and pastoral Arabs; whilst south of it the land of the negro begins. Absence of cultivation is strongly marked—forests approach near the river, and game becomes very plentiful. Hippopotami, crocodiles, and antelope are very numerous, and water birds of every description are seen. Occasional floating blocks of sudd are met with in the river channel, and papyrus reed is first noticed in small patches.

At 222 miles, Jebelein ("two mountains"), an imposing ridge of rocky hills, is situated on the right bank, and the forests become extremely dense. Five strangely-shaped granite peaks make Jebelein easily distinguishable.* After this the river winds through forests, reedy islands, and occasionally floating weed. At 281 miles Renk is reached; here a Dervish *deim*, or camp, was bombarded in 1898, and a steamer captured by the Nile gunboats. The forest on the river edge is thick and dense. Jebel Ahmed Agha (at 340 miles) is a sombre-looking hill about 350ft. in height. Here is a noted game district, and there is an absence of cultivation on the banks. Still further on, the scenery retains its character, forests and grassy

* The Dinka country commences here on the east bank.

swamps appearing on both sides of the river, whilst an occasional fishing village is passed, the villages of the Dinkas being several miles inland on the east bank.

Kaka is passed at 390 miles. This is a large group of Shilluk villages, and the northern limit of the Shilluk country. The inhabitants live mostly by fishing and hunting. They use for the purpose roughly-made long and narrow canoes lashed with raw hide, or small rafts constructed from the ambach tree, which grows in profusion on the river banks. Many accidents occur to these craft owing to their being upset by hippopotami, which are here met with in large numbers. Some of the canoes are of very ingenious construction. The ambach limbs taper from the roots, and the natives lash a number of them together so as to form a handy-shaped little canoe, which can be easily carried on a man's head when hunting. These canoes have, however, to be dried periodically in the sun, when they become soaked with water.

Landing on either side of the river is well nigh impossible, owing to the belt of reeds. Occasionally large Khors (river courses) are met with, their banks being fringed with thick undergrowth, and many Dinka and Shilluk villages are seen on the right and left banks respectively.

Kodok (Fashoda) is reached when 469 miles from Khartoum. It is situated near the headquarters of the Shilluks. In the rainy season it is surrounded on three sides by swamps, and is separated from the river at low water by an island and a reed covered backwater. The fort, constructed by Major Marchand, was built on the site of the old Egyptian fort, and the present Governor's quarters are near the same spot. Marchand's garden is still kept up, and is in good repair.

About half a mile to the south is a large village where a few enterprising merchants now offer European goods for sale, and some miles further on is the residence of the *mek*, or king, of the Shilluks. They are a very tall, slightly built, active race, chiefly living by hunting and fishing, and they are much averse to manual labour.* The rainy season here commences in May, and the river rises and falls about 4 ft.

After two hours' steaming from Kodok, the Austrian R.C. Mission station at Lul is

passed. It was established many years ago; attempts are being made to encourage civilisation. The church and Mission houses are built of burnt brick, and a good garden has been laid out on the shore. At 520 miles, Malakal, the Provincial Headquarters of the Sudan Government is passed.



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers
BREAD MAKING ON THE UPPER NILE

Taufikia, 530 miles from Khartoum, is the headquarters of the troops on the Upper Nile, and is a more healthy and picturesque spot than Fashoda. The officers' quarters and barracks are on a high bank, shaded by numerous trees. Sir Samuel Baker estab-

* They grow large quantities of dura, in contra-distinction to other neighbouring tribes. For a full account of these tribes see 'The Black Sudan' by Charles W. Dornville-Fife

lished a station here when he was clearing the Bahr-el-Zeraf of sudd.

Four miles further on, the Sobat River joins the Nile—a fine stream with high banks, originating in the highlands of Abyssinia. About five miles up the Sobat, at Doleib, or Tartug Hill, an American Mission Station has been established, where efforts are being made to civilise the natives, and 188 miles up this river there is a Government post at Nasser. The inhabitants are Shilluks, Anuaks and Nuers.

Passing the mouth of the Sobat, the river widens considerably, but the banks are very low and covered with mimosa scrub; many Shilluk villages are seen on the left bank. The river then narrows again. Grass plains, dotted with trees, extend on either bank as far as the eye can reach, and the banks continue to be very low. Large ant hills are seen scattered here and there. At 545 miles from Khartoum, Khor Attar is reached. Here there is a wood-cutting station, and trees of a large size become more numerous.

The mouth of the Bahr-el-Zeraf is reached at 565 miles from Khartoum. From here the course lies through low country, and trees become very scarce. Elephants, hippopotami, hartebeest, buffalo, reed buck, and wild geese are met with, while crocodiles cover the sandbanks and shelving shores. The rare Mrs. Gay's water buck is here to be met with for the first time.

At mile 615 Lake No is entered, and an immediate sharp turn to the south brings the steamer into the Bahr-el-Jebel, the main stream of the Upper White Nile. This river, which has now been completely cleared of sudd, forms a winding canal cut through banks of papyrus for several hundred miles.

Elephant and giraffe are seen, but always at a distance from the river bank; and the reeds, principally papyrus, tiger grass, and Um Suf, stretch far inland on either side, making a vast, uninhabitable waste of marsh. "Sudd" (a block) is the name given to masses of water plants and papyrus which grow or float into the river from the neighbouring lakes. If these masses become stationary for any length of time, the limbs reach the bottom and take growth, or else the floating plants jam together in a narrow channel; in either case they make a solid mass of vegetation which often closes the channel of the river entirely. Huge blocks

of sufficient thickness to stand upon, and even camp on, have been encountered, and their removal—either entirely or in sections—has been effected only with enormous difficulty and labour. In fact, in 1860, an Italian explorer, Gessi, found his return passage down the Bahr-el-Ghazal barred in front of him, owing to the channel suddenly being blocked with huge masses of sudd, and he suffered great hardships before he eventually found his way out.

Happily such an unfortunate contretemps is not at all likely to occur at the present time, as, since the channel was opened in 1900, the current runs with sufficient strength to keep it clear.

The sudd region being passed, lakes and lagoons border the river, and papyrus reeds seem to be the only vegetation. The bank again becomes solid at Hillet-el-Nuer (749 miles), and a few scattered Nuer villages are seen, but five miles further on the sudd is again encountered.

At 876 miles the southern end of the Bahr-el-Zeraf branches off, and the Shambé lagoon is reached. The village of the Dinkas and the station lie a short distance from the river up a broad backwater, and forest land is seen. From here a route lies across the province through Rumbek to Wau, the headquarters of the Bahr-el-Ghazal. Such immense numbers of hippopotami are now met with in the lagoons and river as to be a nuisance, and constitute a danger to the natives when fishing in their small dug-outs or ambach canoes.

The marsh lands appear much lower, and firm ground and trees are visible in the distance. The channel continues its extraordinary twisting, and at 910 miles the old site of Kenissa church is reached. Here, until the year 1864, an Austrian Mission station existed, but it had to be abandoned on account of the climate during the rainy season. Trees become more plentiful, and a wood-fuel station is situated on the western bank. From here southwards a sharp look-out should be kept for elephants. The papyrus gives place to tiger grass and Um Suf, and grass fires continue to be seen frequently. Numbers of natives can be observed fishing from their dugout canoes. It is amusing to see the haste in which they haul their small craft to the reeds on the approach of the steamer, to escape being

swamped by its wash. Presently the Dinka village of Bor is reached, where an Egyptian post was established by Gordon in 1874. Near here are the remains of a Dervish stronghold, long held by the Emir Arabi Dafaalla.

The scenery then changes. Many villages and cattle are seen, and the vegetation becomes more tropical. The villages are inhabited by the Bari negroes, a tall and strongly-built race. Their huts are well built, neat and picturesque. Rhinoceros and elephant in considerable numbers are to be met with. After leaving Bor, the river takes a sharp turn; the banks change character, and some cultivated ground is passed.

A portion of Sudan territory, which, until recently, was leased by the Congo State Administration (known as the "Lado Enclave"), reaches to the river a few miles north of Kior, on the west bank (1,043 miles), where a station has been formed. The officers' quarters and other buildings are well built, with conical thatched roofs. The station forms a very pretty scene, being situated on a high bank, well shaded by trees, and surrounded by gardens and cultivated lands. Opposite, on an island, banana and paw-paw trees abound. The station is garrisoned by Sudanese troops. The southernmost station of the Sudan Government is reached at a place called Mongalla, 1,056 miles from Khartoum. After this comes Lado (1,068 miles), which was the principal Belgian station on the Nile and was strongly garrisoned. The station was formed by Gordon in 1874, and was for some time the headquarters of Emin Pasha.

Leaving here, the course is resumed to Gondokoro, 1,071 miles from Khartoum. The river bank is high, and fine large trees are numerous. Ranges of mountains can now be seen, far away to the south. At Juba, 1,087 miles, there is a small hotel and administrative station, as this place is the terminus of river navigation. Motor roads extend southwards from Juba into Kenya, Uganda and the Belgian Congo. (See *Cape to Cairo*.)

SOURCE OF THE WHITE NILE.

At the head of Napoleon Gulf on the Victoria Nyanza a huge volume of water flows from this central African lake over a rocky ledge, and forms the Ripon Falls. Although

the Falls themselves are not of any great height the volume of water is immense, being at the rate of about 11,000,000 gallons a minute; the breadth of the Falls is 850 ft. They are of considerable interest, as being the principal source of the Nile, the great river upon which the prosperity of Egypt and the Sudan has depended for countless ages. Back in the days of the Pharaohs, and in the still more distant past before the dawn of written history, the mighty lake poured its life-giving floods over these self-same falls—unchanged and unchangeable, but it was left to explorers of the last century to discover the cradle of the Nile.

ADMINISTRATION OF THE SUDAN.

In 1898, the year of the birth of the New Sudan, the revenue, apart from the Egyptian contribution, was £E35,000. By 1914 the contribution had been abolished and the revenue had increased to £E1,300,000. The annual average is now about £E6,000,000, and the expenditure £E5,500,000. From this it will be apparent that the Sudan is not only solvent but is decidedly prosperous, and this state of affairs has been brought about by a handful of Englishmen in a huge country, largely composed of desert, and inhabited by a scanty and half-civilised population.

There are now 1,750 miles of railway and 4,777 miles of telegraph. An up-to-date harbour has been created at Port Sudan, which is now visited annually by some 2,000,000 tons of shipping. The place where this port stands was only a few years ago a barren and uninhabited shore. Khartoum, a fine city, has been built on the site of the old capital, which was reduced by the Dervishes to a heap of sand-covered ruins. The Government fleet of steamers consists of a number of vessels both large and small, with several well-equipped tourist steamers. In almost every provincial capital and district headquarters Government buildings and houses for officials have been erected, and schools have been established in numerous centres. Trams, ferries, water and electric light installations, sanitation, prisons and hospitals, irrigation works, and a host of other services have had to depend almost entirely for their capital cost on the help that has been afforded. In addition to these, and other forms of expenditure, a system of



Photo, Sudan Government Railways and Steamers

AZANDI MEDICINE MEN

justice has been introduced throughout the whole country, and an effective civil administration has been built up.

The Sudan is divided into fourteen provinces. Taking the purely provincial service at about ninety strong, this means that on an average there is one senior British official to some 10,000 square miles. The responsibilities of those engaged in administrative work in the provinces are certainly very great, but this figure is misleading, as large areas in the northern provinces consist only of sandy and almost uninhabited desert, and in some of the southern ones of desolate swamp and sudd. It remains true, nevertheless, that a Commissioner is often in charge of a district of thousands of square miles in extent, in which, by the nature of things, he is left a very free hand, both by his Governor and the Central Government. Great centralisation of control, which is always avoided, is practically impossible in many regions of the Sudan.

Governors and Commissioners act in a dual capacity, as both executive and judicial officers. The substantive criminal law is contained in the Sudan Penal Code, which is based on the Indian Penal Code. Criminal justice is administered by the Governor's Court, consisting of the Governor and two other magistrates. This Court has general competence. There are in each province minor district courts. Sentences passed by the Governor's Court are submitted to the Governor-General for confirmation, sentences in the minor courts to the Governor. In all cases the Governor-General has a revising power. There is no code of substantive civil law, but the Civil Justice Ordinance provides for the recognition of customary law on matters of succession, so far as it is applicable and is not repugnant to good conscience, and also provides for the administration of "justice, equity, and good conscience." In commercial matters, in cases in which the law of civilised countries is not in agreement with Egyptian commercial law, the latter is ordinarily recognised. There are no "Consular" Courts in the Sudan.

COMMERCE.

The principal source of the world's supply of gum arabic and ivory is the Sudan. The former comes principally from Kordofan and the latter from the Equatorial Province.

Cotton is now being largely grown, and when the irrigation schemes on the Blue Nile and elsewhere have been completed the area under this crop should exceed a quarter of a million acres. Other Sudanese products are dates, ground nuts, sesame, senna leaves and pods, hides, skins and gold. The Sudan is a great pastoral country, and the cattle trade shows remarkable growth in recent years. Egypt depends almost entirely on the Sudan for its meat supply. The forests of the White Nile contain many valuable trees, including ebony, gum acacia, bamboo and rubber. This latter product comes from the Bahr-el-Ghazal. A gold mine is being worked at Gabait.

The chief imports into the Sudan consist of cotton piece goods. The bulk of the trade is in the hands of Great Britain. There should be a large expansion of this trade as the wealth and population of the country increase. The market for cotton piece goods in West and South-west Abyssinia, which can be supplied most economically from the Sudan, is worthy of more careful attention. Other imports include coal, sugar, flour, coffee, ready-made clothing, tea, tobacco, soap, empty sacks, liquors and petroleum. The average annual values of imports and exports are £E6,600,000 and £E6,500,000. From the export values should be deducted about £E2,000,000, representing the value of Government imports for public works, defence, etc.

The chief market of the country is that of the three towns of Khartoum, Khartoum North and Omdurman, standing at the junction of the White and Blue Niles, with a population among them of 140,000 people. This market is the headquarters of both native and European traders.

The chief grain markets in the Blue Nile districts are Singa, Wad Medani, Hassa Heissa, Mesellemia, and Managil. On the White Nile, Dueim, and Getaina export grain. The markets for sesame are at Singa, Mafaza, and Gedaref in the Eastern Sudan, and at El Obeid and other centres in Kordofan. Kaka and Kostî, on the White Nile, also trade in sesame.

The chief cotton markets are at Tokar, in the Red Sea Province, and Wad Medani. The principal gum markets are El Obeid, Um Ruaba, and Nahud in Kordofan, Kassala and Gedaref in Kassala Province, Singa in Sennar



Photo by kind permission of Major R. Whitbread

A GIRL OF THE BAHR-EL-GHAZAL

This portion of the Southern Sudan was at one time the hunting ground of the slave raider

Province, and Kaka in the Upper Nile Province. Nahud, in Kordofan, is the centre of the ostrich feather trade.

The *average* annual value of the principal exports is as follows :—

	£E
Cotton - - - -	4,100,000
Gum - - - -	690,000
Cotton seed - - -	400,000
Sesame - - - -	220,000
Skins and hides - -	180,000
Cattle - - - -	70,000
Dates - - - -	48,000
Ground nuts - - -	35,000
Dura - - - -	25,000
Ivory - - - -	20,000
Gold - - - -	16,000

The chief cattle market is at Omdurman. El Damar, in Berber Province, has a thriving sheep trade. Dates come from Halfa and

Dongola Provinces, and are dealt in at Tangassi and other local markets. The headquarters of the ivory trade are at Omdurman.

A trading station has been established at Gambela, in Abyssinia, on the upper waters of the Baro, on a site leased from the Abyssinian Government. The place is the outlet for various articles from Abyssinia, *viz.* : coffee, beeswax and rubber. It provides a trade route capable of great development, especially for Manchester goods and hides and skins. There is also a growing market at Gedaref.

Merchants' interests are represented by the Sudan Chamber of Commerce, established at Khartoum, and also by the Omdurman Merchants' Association, and there is the Central Economic Board of the Sudan Government. (See also under *Defence, Government, Agriculture*, etc.).



FALKLAND ISLANDS

AND

SOUTH GEORGIA

THE southernmost inhabited colony of the British Empire is the Falkland Islands, which are situated 480 miles north-east of Cape Horn—the Antarctic extremity of the American continent. They consist of the two main islands, East and West Falkland, several small adjacent islets, and the almost uninhabited dependencies of South Georgia, the South Shetlands, the South Orkneys, the South Sandwich group, and that part of the Antarctic mainland known as Graham's Land, including a sector stretching to the South Pole.

The total area of the Falklands, themselves, is about 5,000 square miles, the principal portion of which is an almost barren waste of moorland and bog, on which graze 700,000 sheep, producing 5,000,000 lb. of wool a year. The population, mostly Scotch, number about 2,100. The approximate area of South Georgia, an island further south, in the ice-bound seas of the Antarctic, is 1,000 square miles, while the area of the other Polar lands and islands is unknown.

The position of the Falklands in the Empire is that of an outpost on the now little frequented ocean route round Cape Horn. They are the only possessions of Great Britain which lie in close proximity to the coast of America, south of British Guiana; and their position on the route round Cape Horn to the Pacific ports of South America, the United States and British Columbia,

gives them a strategical value which was made generally apparent during the Naval operations in the Great European War. The opening of the Panama Canal has taken away a portion of the shipping which at one time called at these islands, as steamships going to and from Europe and the Pacific ports of North and South America no longer need to undertake the long and stormy voyage round Cape Horn or through the wild but picturesque Magellan Straits. Although this change of route has undoubtedly greatly diminished the tonnage of shipping calling at the Falklands, it should not prove a serious check to the industries of these islands. In past years sailing ships put into Port Stanley, the capital, to refit after the buffeting of the wind and waves off the cape of storms.

INTERNATIONAL RIVALRY.

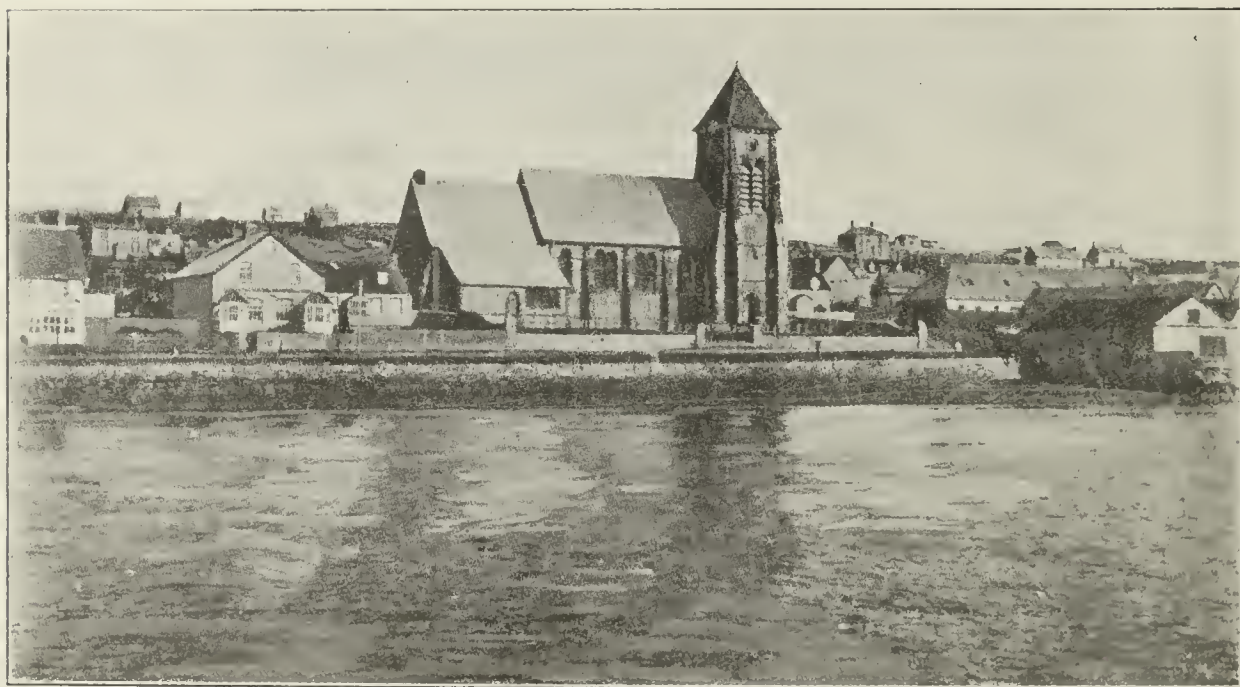
The Falkland Islands were first discovered by John Davis, the famous Arctic explorer, in August, 1592; but beyond being visited in turn by the sea rovers, Richard Hawkins, Captain Strong—who was the first to name them the Falkland Islands—Rogers and Dampier, nothing was done to establish a settlement there until 1749. In this year the British Government, acting on the advice of Lord Anson, prepared to despatch a vessel to establish a station in these islands, in order that British vessels might have a national port-of-call in the extremity of the South Atlantic, but the Spanish Government rightly

objected to a foreign Power taking possession of these islands which were so close to their own great South American Colonies ; and the Falklands remained unappropriated for over fifteen years, when the French established a colony in East Falkland, and the British in the Western Islands, which were formally annexed by Captain Byron in January, 1765.

The French were bought out by the Spaniards, and, nothing loth, soon left these islands. In 1770 the Spaniards captured the British settlement, but restored it *under protest* when admonished by the British Government.

A British Squadron, under Admiral Sir Doveton Sturdee, defeated a German Squadron, under Admiral Von Spee, off the Falkland Islands on December 8th, 1914. The British ships had been waiting under cover of the land at Port Stanley for the German warships which had rounded the Horn after destroying the weak British squadron off Coronel, on the Chilean coast of South America. The victory demonstrates the strategical value of the islands as guard-houses on the highways of the sea.

For forty-one years a gradually diminishing grant-in-aid was allowed from the Imperial

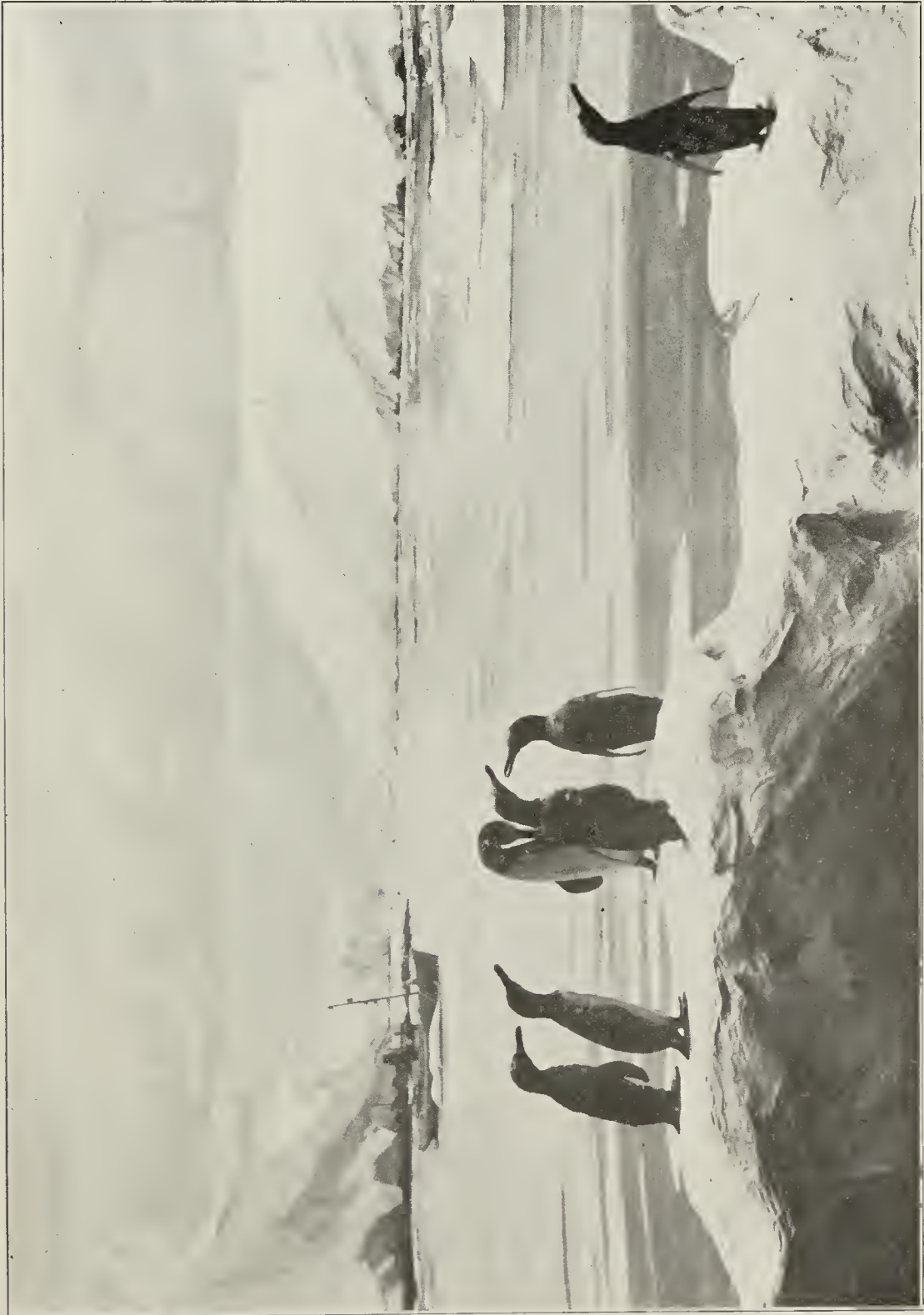


CHRISTCHURCH CATHEDRAL, PORT STANLEY, FALKLAND ISLANDS

After these events the Falklands remained for many years almost uninhabited and quite neglected. In 1820 the Republic of Buenos Aires established a colony in East Falkland, which was, however, expelled by American warships in retaliation for the seizure of several merchantmen by the Governor of the Settlement. Fearing that America intended taking possession of the Falklands, the British Government finally annexed them in 1832.

For ten years these islands were under the Board of Admiralty, and were administered in the same manner as Ascension was until quite recently, but in 1843 they became a Crown Colony, and later were placed under their own civil administration.

Exchequer, and at the end of that time, in 1885, the revenue slightly exceeded the expenditure. During the years that have since elapsed all the money advanced by the British Government has been repaid, and a reserve fund created ; and this with a population of under 3,000, an import trade of about £650,000, and an export trade of over £4,000,000. These figures, however, include the valuable whale fisheries of South Georgia and the other dependencies of the Falkland group. The annual revenue averages about £290,000, and the expenditure £170,000. The former is raised not only by taxation, but from the rents of Crown lands, used mostly for grazing, and from customs



Photo, F. Hopwood

MALCHION HARBOUR, SOUTH SHETLANDS
The resort of Whalers and Penguins

and other quasi-maritime dues. The whaling industry in the dependencies of the Falklands is the most important in the world. Thirteen companies (2 British and 11 Norwegian) are engaged, and over 13,000 whales yielding oil to the value of £4,000,000 are annually caught.

of the Spanish, French, and English, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The present population of the main islands is mostly Scotch or of Scotch descent, but there are a few Norwegians in the small islets lying off these storm-beaten coasts. The staple industry is sheep-farming on a large



The Memorial erected by the members of the "Quest" Expedition to the memory of Sir E. Shackleton in South Georgia

THE SOUTHERNMOST OUTPOSTS OF EMPIRE.

Although healthy, the climate of the Falklands is not altogether pleasant, as wind and rain are the predominating features, but the cold is by no means excessive, being less than that usual on the mainland of Patagonia. In summer the average temperature is about 60 deg. F. and in winter about 30 deg. F.

There is no evidence that the Falklands were ever inhabited previous to the landing

scale. The largest portion of these islands is composed of desolate stretches of wind-swept, swampy grass-lands, intersected by ranges of low hills. Efforts are, however, being made to develop a peat industry, and also a penguin and seal oil industry. It is also hoped that both minerals and mineral oil may be found either in the Falklands themselves or in South Georgia.

The Falkland Channel, which divides the two main islands of this group, is 45 miles

in length, and varies in breadth from 3 to 18 miles. The coast line of both islands is rugged and indented with many bays running far inland. There are several deep and well-sheltered natural harbours, the most important of which is Port William in the north-east of East Falkland. At the head of this sound lies Stanley, the tiny capital of these islands. It has an almost land-locked harbour over two miles in length and nearly a mile in breadth. The town, which has only 900 inhabitants, possesses a small cathedral, an interesting Antarctic museum, a race course, and several clubs, as well as a Volunteer force over 100 strong. Marksmen from these islands have distinguished themselves on the English ranges. A telephone crosses the main island, and a wireless telegraph station places these islands in touch with the outer world, *via* Argentina, as there is no cable, and the only reliable means of communication with Great Britain is the somewhat infrequent service of steamers which call at the Falklands on the outward and homeward voyages to and from Chile and Peru.

The Falklands link the British possessions on the Atlantic with those on the Pacific, and are the southernmost inhabited outposts of the Empire.

SOUTH GEORGIA.

About South Georgia little can be said, because, with the exception of a small settlement at Leith Harbour, called Gryt-viken, consisting principally of a whaling station, and the near-by lonely grave of Sir Ernest Shackleton, it is nothing but a mountainous and semi-frozen waste. A curious characteristic of the South Sandwich Group, many of the islands in which are snow covered all the year round and are quite barren and uninhabited, are the caves, which emit sulphurous fumes, and the colonies of penguins. The other small islands and Graham's Land, owing to their Antarctic position, are merely frozen wastes visited only by whalers. In the South Orkneys the Argentine Government has, however, established a meteorological station, with the permission of the British Government.



FIJI ISLANDS

AND

WESTERN PACIFIC GROUPS

THE Fijis consist of some 250 islands lying in horse-shoe formation in the South Pacific, just over 1,000 miles north of New Zealand. These islands, which are of volcanic origin, have a total area of about 7,100 square miles. Only two—Viti Levu (4,112 square miles) and Vanua Levu (2,432 square miles)—are of any economic importance. The group is situated between the 13th and 22nd parallels of South Latitude, and 176° and 178° East Longitude. The population now numbers 171,800, made up of 89,600 Fijian natives, 68,820 Indians, 8,180 Polynesians and other Pacific Island natives, and 4,200 Europeans. Less than half the islands are occupied. The whole group is encircled by coral reefs.

THE EMPIRE IN THE PACIFIC.

Previously to their cession to Great Britain these islands were ruled by a number of petty chiefs, who, with their followers, were constantly at war with each other, and, as the Fijians were cannibals, the fighting was always of the most bloody character.

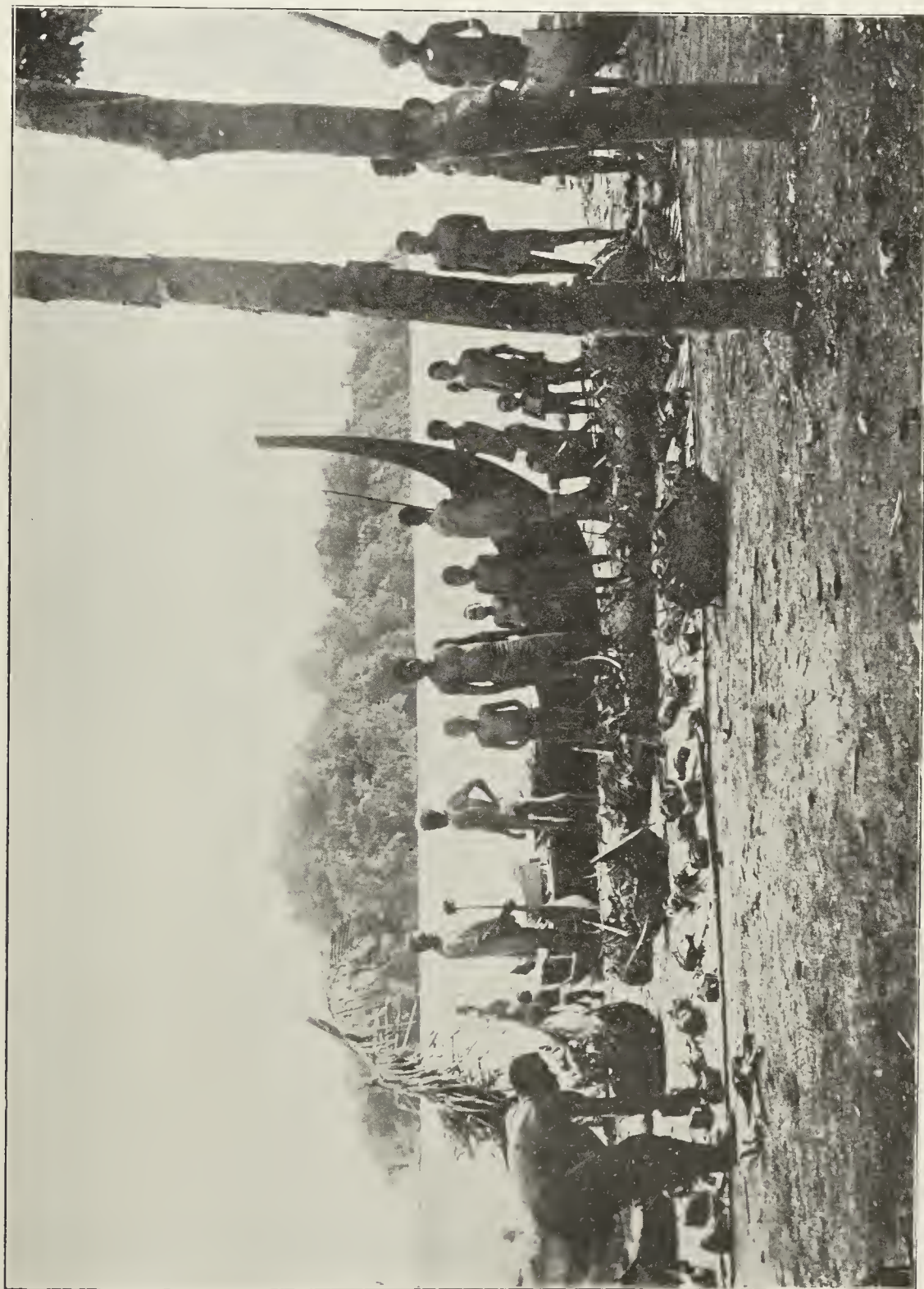
This age of darkness lasted until the middle of the nineteenth century, by which time the efforts of the missionaries began to show tangible results, and many thousands of Pacific islanders, including the most powerful chiefs of Tonga and Fiji, were converted to Christianity; but when the missionaries took up the additional *role* of law-givers and administrators, the results, as could only be expected, were by no means satisfactory or

creditable. This was especially the case in the Tonga Islands, where a queer kind of government was established with an ex-missionary as its premier, who was afterwards rightly expelled from the island by the British High Commissioner of the Western Pacific. These events occurred in 1890–2, and in 1900 a British protectorate was proclaimed over the Tonga Islands.

In the Fijis matters did not progress so smoothly, Australia, New Zealand, America, France and Germany were all coveting these islands as half-way houses on the Trans-Pacific route. In 1858 the United States sent a warship to demand compensation for the infringement of certain territorial rights from the Fijian chief Thakombau (styled *King* by the white residents), who thereupon offered his Kingdom to Great Britain.* This offer was refused by the Imperial Government, much to the indignation of the Australians and New Zealanders, who almost monopolised the trade of these islands.

A new motive for annexation was made manifest about this time; first by the ill-treatment of coloured seamen and labourers obtained from the Pacific islands under contracts which it was urged they did not understand, and, secondly, by the murder of three Englishmen in the Santa Cruz group (1864–71), which was believed to be an act of retribution by the natives for the kidnapping of several of their comrades by other ships which had previously landed parties on the island.

* Many other Fijian chiefs signed the petition.



PREPARING FOR A FEAST, SOUTH SEA ISLANDS
Subdividing the food portions for the guests

Photo, Underwood

These events brought matters to a climax. Australia and New Zealand were, rightly, loud in their demands for annexation; the United States and Germany, as well as France, were eagerly searching for ways and means to assert their jurisdiction, and, in 1874, Fiji, itself, again asked for inclusion in the British Empire. This time with success, for the Imperial Government began to understand that, as Australia and New Zealand monopolised the trade of these islands and nearly all the white residents were Britishers, it was their duty to grant those subjects and that trade the protection of the British flag.*

The Fiji islands were formally annexed by Great Britain in 1874, and Sir A. Gordon was appointed Governor and Resident High Commissioner of the Western Pacific. The island of Rotumah was annexed to the Fijis in 1881.

If the Fijis had been annexed in 1858 the cost to Great Britain would only have been the £9,000 demanded as compensation by America, but the delay of sixteen years increased the actual expenditure from the Imperial Exchequer to £115,000. Much of this, if not all, has, however, now been *directly* repaid, as for many years the Fijian revenue exceeded the expenditure.

To enable a clear understanding to be obtained of the British sphere in the Pacific—and the political spheres coincide almost exactly with the commercial, for the “flag has followed the trade”—these islands may be roughly divided among the dominions of Empire as follows: Australia is responsible for British New Guinea (Papua and the ex-German portion of this island—*Kaiser Wilhelm's Land*), and subsidises a mail service with the New Hebrides, Solomons, Gilberts, Ellices, and other less important isles; New Zealand is mainly responsible for the Cook's Islands, Union Islands, Western Samoa, and grants a subsidy for the conveyance of mails to and from Niue, the Manahiki group, Pukapuka and others; while Great Britain takes the responsibility for the islands in which Australia, New Zealand, and even Canada have equal interests, as well as many groups dotted over the broad bosom of the Pacific. The Fijis, through which passes the Imperial cable and mail services, are the political and

commercial centre of the whole of the British Pacific.

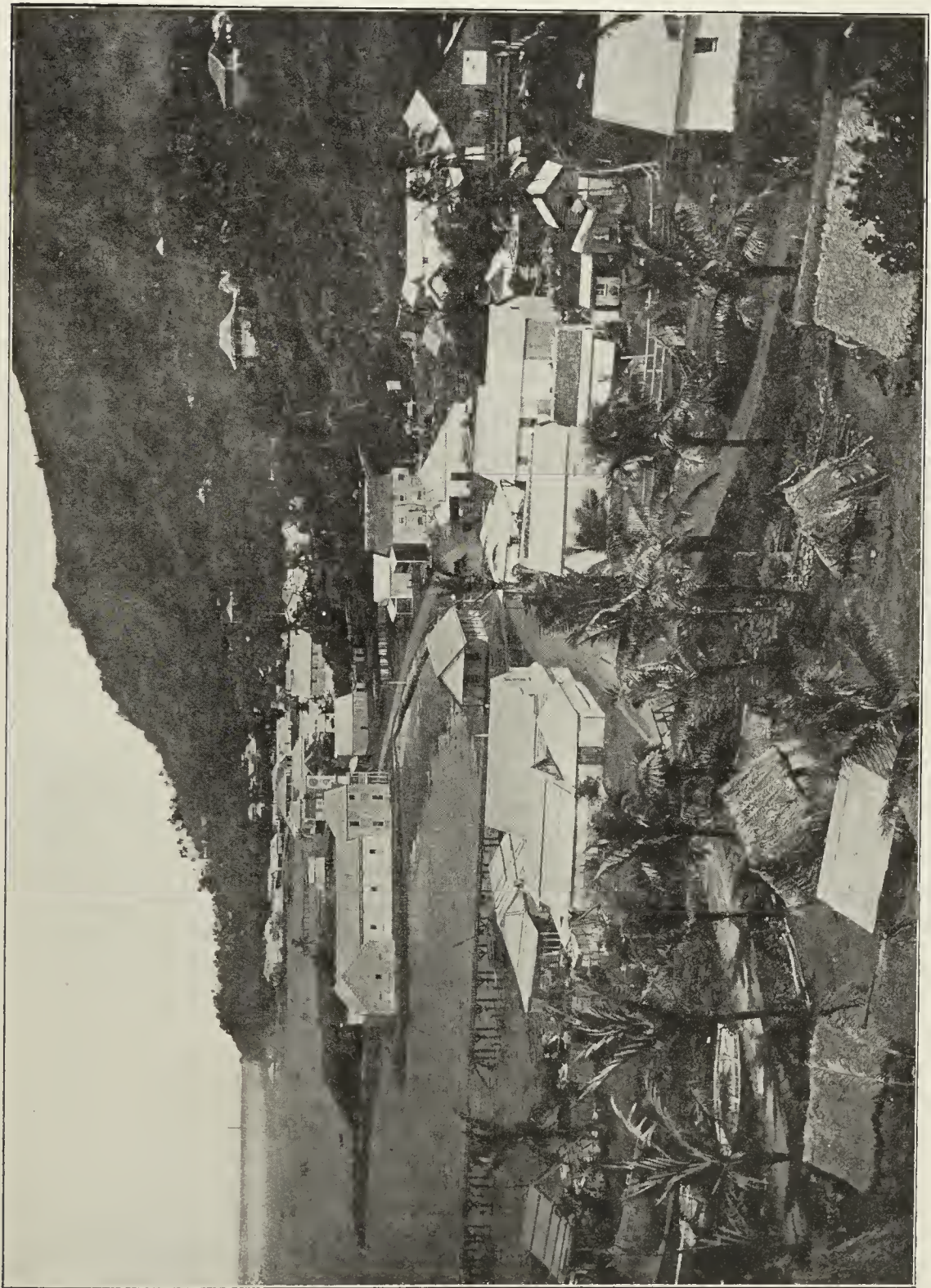
THE ISLANDS AND THE NATIVES.

Most of the larger islands have excellent harbours, and the passages through the reefs are easy and safe for shipping. The islands themselves are exquisitely picturesque, being richly wooded and having mountains rising over 4,500 ft. The whole land is intersected by countless streams, breaking up the otherwise luxurious and dense vegetation. Besides extinct volcanoes there are many other evidences of volcanic origin. The climate, although tropical, is far from unhealthy, but it is somewhat trying and enervating to white people. Zymotic and endemic diseases are very rare, but dysentery and similar ailments are prevalent at certain periods of the year. The rainfall averages between 95 and 100 in. annually, and the maximum temperature about 92 deg. F. (minimum 60 deg. F.) in the shade. Fierce storms and hurricanes sweep the islands during the early months of the year, which in many cases do considerable damage to property, but have a beneficial effect on the region generally, as they clear away excessive vegetation, destroy harmful insects, and freshen up the otherwise sultry atmosphere.

POPULATION.

The population, which is approximately 171,800, comprises about 4,200 Europeans, the remainder being made up of native Fijians, Polynesians, Rotumans (natives of Rotumah, an island annexed to the Fiji group) and Indian coolies. The white people, of whom the majority are males, are principally engaged in commerce, and sugar and coco-nut cultivation. The Indian coolies are mostly the labourers on the plantations and in domestic service. The Fijians themselves vary in colour from light to very dark brown or black, and are of good physique. The whole social system of the islanders is decidedly conservative, a man inherits his land, trade, and style of doing his trade, and whole mode of life. Polygamy and religious bloodfeuds were the ruling factors in the constant wars and inter-tribal fights that were

* The Britons in Fiji had already established a mild form of government.



LEVUKA, THE OLD CAPITAL OF THE FIJI ISLANDS

Photo, H. J. Shepstone

waged with the utmost fierceness, and most of the inland villages are even now heavily stockaded and fortified. Superstition was rife and horrible cruelties were practised, such as cannibalism, and the torturing and killing of sickly infants and crippled or aged persons. These times have now passed however, and over two-thirds of the population are Christians, principally Wesleyans and Roman Catholics. There are several State schools—one solely for natives—and a European school. Besides these there is a very large number of schools conducted by Wesleyans and Roman Catholics for the native children. The principal industries of the natives are agriculture, fishing, and the making of cloth, houses and canoes.

The chief articles of commerce are the general produce of the islands, such as sugar, fruit, tobacco, para rubber, copra, coco-nut oil, maize, hides, and *bêche de mer*. The total exports amount in average value to over £2,000,000 per annum, while the imports are just under £1,500,000 for the same period. The shipping returns, exclusive of coasting and inter-island trade, which is very considerable, show that about 800,000 tons enter and clear Fijian ports every year. Most of the trade is between ports of the British Empire, and is carried in British vessels. The registered shipping of the colony, exclusive of coasters, is sixteen vessels with a total of 2,000 tons. The revenue averages about £580,000 per annum, and the expenditure for the same period £520,000, while the Public Debt is about £340,000.

GREAT FIJI.

The Island of Viti-Levu (Great Fiji) is nearly oval in form, being widest from east to west, and is both volcanic and mountainous, rising in many places (especially in the centre) to about 5,000 ft. It is densely wooded and covered with luxurious vegetation. The soil is intensely fertile, and the valleys and plains are watered by countless streams running in all directions from the high lands of the interior, some of the larger rivers being navigable for steamers for considerable distances. The chief river is Wai-Levu (great water) or Rewa-Rewa, as it is more commonly called, which is broad and

sufficiently deep for ships to navigate its waters for many miles. Situated near the mouth of this river is Suva, the capital of the whole Fiji group and the principal European town. Here is the residence of the British High Commissioner of the Western Pacific and the Governor of the Fijis. The town itself has a population of about 15,000. Lying off the east coast of Viti-Levu is the small island of Ban, which was the stronghold of the old Fijian monarchy. It is well-wooded, fertile, and thickly covered with native dwellings.

GREAT LAND.

Vanua-Levu, or Great Land, is the second largest island of the whole group, and lies N.N.E. of Viti-Levu.

The east side of this island forms a very extensive basin called Nateva Bay (and *Dead-Sea*, because of the calmness of its waters). This bay is enclosed for three-quarters of its circumference by the mainland and two long peninsulas which half encircle it like long arms. This island is also of a volcanic and mountainous nature. It is densely wooded and intersected by many streams, and the soil is highly fertile. It is connected with Viti-Levu by small islands and submerged reefs, which seem to indicate that at no remote period of the past these two islands formed one land. Savu-Savu Bay in the south of this island is much frequented by shipping, and near by are some famous thermal springs—the water bubbling up from the beach. The little island of Savi-Uni is only separated from Vanua-Levu by a narrow and picturesque strait. The island itself is famed for its curious volcano, which has a flooded crater and is 2,600 ft. in height. The soil of Savi Uni is fertile, and in common with the other islands of this group it is thickly wooded and has a tropical climate.

OTHER ISLANDS.

The island of Kantavu, which is 26 miles long and about 4 miles broad, is less obstructed by reefs than the others of this group. Ngaloa Bay, which almost cuts the island in two, is the port-of-call for ocean steamers, and the lofty Mount Washington forms a landmark for all vessels coming from the American continent. Goro is a little

island lying between the two largest of the Fijian group, and is apparently the main connecting link in the barrier reef. Lakeniba is the principal island of the western portion of the Fiji group. Unlike most of the other islands it is flat and less thickly covered with vegetation. Although unattractive in appearance it was chosen as the site of the first Wesleyan Mission in 1835-6, probably owing to the fact that it is less volcanic than the

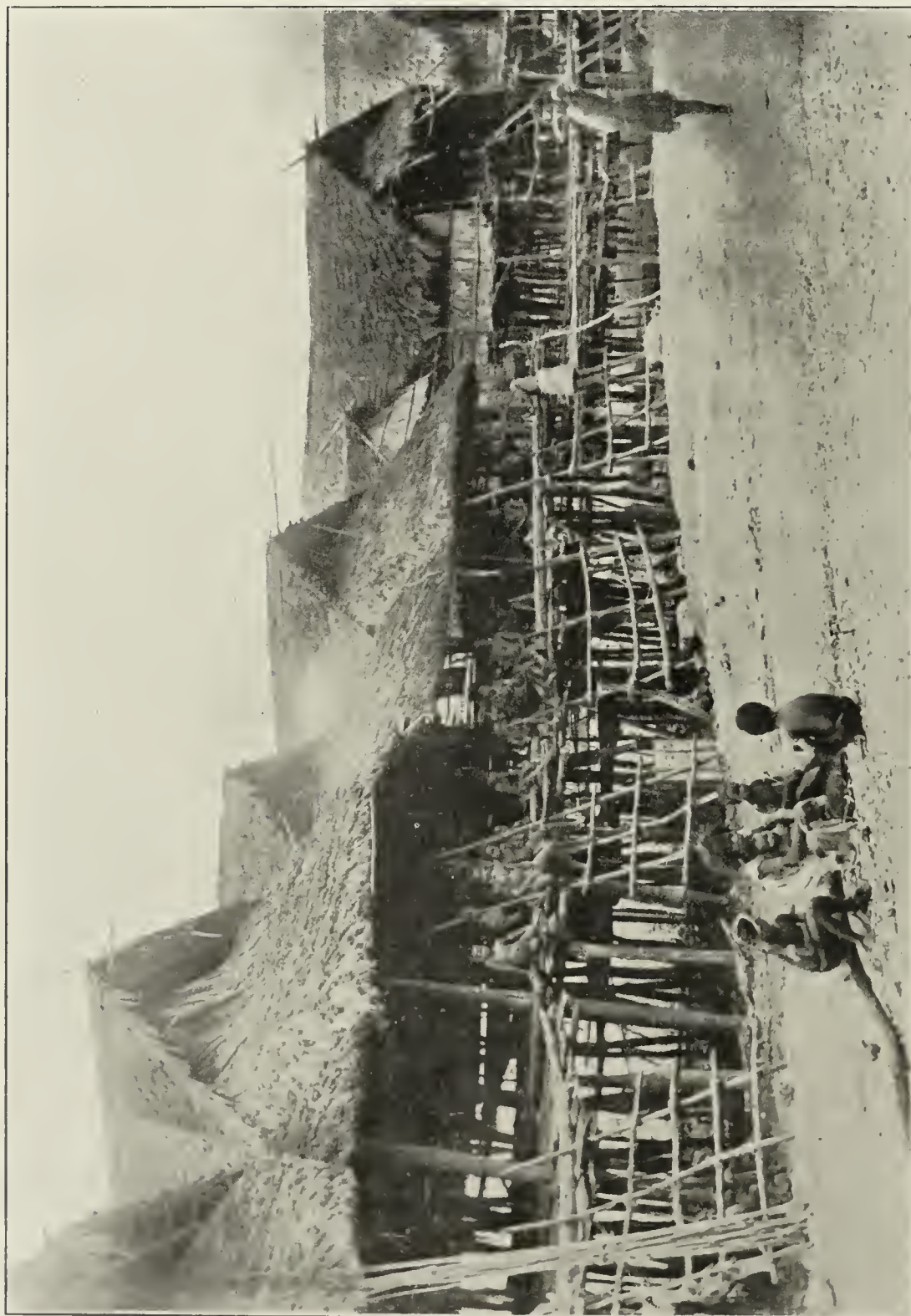
Island of Rotumah lies about 300 miles N.W. of the Fijis, but was annexed to them in 1881, and now forms a grandchild of Great Britain. It has an area of about 14 square miles and is both hilly and fertile. The wild pig is largely reared by the natives, and, with the coco-nut palms, forms the chief source of this island's wealth. The Rotumah islanders make excellent sailors and are found distributed all over the Fiji group.



A FIJIAN WAR DANCE

more beautiful island to the east. Ovalau was once the most important of the Fijis, and upon it stands the old capital, Levuka, which lost its position because of its enclosed situation, being shut in by hills which prevented expansion and had a bad effect on the climate. It is, however, still the second most important European town. There are, in addition to the more or less important islands enumerated, over 200 islets and uninhabited rocks of no economic value. The

In 1874 the King and principal Chiefs ceded Fiji to Great Britain, and it is now administered by a Governor, assisted by an Executive Council consisting of seven official members and a Legislative Council composed of twelve official and seven unofficial members. The native administration is carried on by the chiefs under Government supervision, and for this purpose the colony is divided into seventeen provinces, in ten of which a superior native chief exercises



FIJIAN ISLANDERS AND THEIR HOMES

Photo, Underwood

authority over the native population, and over these are white commissioners; whilst there are nearly 200 inferior posts filled by other native chiefs. There is no military force, and order is maintained by a body of armed native constabulary numbering about 100 men. Minor judicial affairs are left in the hands of about twelve British and over thirty native stipendiary magistrates. The seat of the Government is Suva, the capital, situated on the south coast of Viti-Levu. There are no railways, but the larger islands now have quite good motor roads. There is a tramway service which radiates from Suva. Steam and sailing vessels maintain regular communication between the islands; and in addition to the irregular cargo traffic there is a regular passenger steamship service with Australia and New Zealand.

The Fijis are the "half-way-house" between the Antipodes and Canada. They received a great impetus when the Panama Canal became one of the most important highways of the sea.

Western Pacific Islands

All the following small islands are under the jurisdiction of the High Commissioner of the Western Pacific, assisted by deputies for the purpose of carrying out the Pacific Islands Protection Acts of 1872 to 1875. The High Commissioner of the Western Pacific is also the Governor of the Fiji Islands, and has his headquarters at Suva, in the island of Viti-Levu, the chief of this group, which, however, forms a separate colony.

Most of the British islands in the Pacific are of coral formation and grow considerable quantities of coco-nuts. Guano is found on many of them.

GILBERT AND ELLICE ISLANDS COLONY.

The Gilberts are situated in Lat. 3° S., and Long. 176° E., and comprise the following islands: Butaritari, Abaian, Marakei, Mariana, Abemama, Kuria, Beru, Ananuka, Nikuna, Monouti, Tapeteuea, Tamana, Onotoa, and Arorae, with a total area of 179 square miles, and a population of about

30,000 natives and Asiatics and 186 Europeans. The total revenue of the whole colony is about £52,000 per annum against an expenditure of approximately £41,000. The principal exports are phosphates and copra, which have a total value of about £390,000 yearly. The imports have an average annual value of £125,000 per annum. The administrative headquarters are on Ocean Island.

Attached for administrative purposes to this colony are: (1) Washington Island, situated in 4° 40' N. Lat., and 160° 20' W. Long., with an area of about 6¼ square miles; (2) Fanning Island, situated just north of the Equator in Long. 160° W., with an area of 15 square miles and a population of 200; (3) the Ellice Islands, situated 8° to 11° S. Lat., and 178° E. Long., with an area of 15 square miles and a population of four or five Europeans and 3,000 natives.

The islands forming this Colony were proclaimed as Protectorates in 1892, and after repeated requests from the natives were formally annexed in November, 1915. They are administered by the High Commissioner of the Western Pacific through a Resident Commissioner with headquarters on Ocean Island.

SOLOMON ISLANDS PROTECTORATE.

The British Solomons are situated in 8° S. Lat., and 160° W. Long. They have a total area of about 12,000 square miles, with 675 European residents and a native population of 150,000. The principal islands are Guadalcanar, Malaita, Isabel, New Georgia, San Christoval, Choiseul, Russell, Rennell, and Florida, as well as many other small islets, including the Santa Cruz and Lord Howe group.

The headquarters of the Resident Commissioner for this group are at Tulagi, a small islet off the coast of Florida Island. The revenue averages about £78,000, and the expenditure £64,000 per annum. The principal exports are copra, pineapples, bananas, green snail and trochus shells, and the average annual value is about £452,000. The imports consist of cotton goods, hardware, meat (tinned), rice, tobacco, and small ships and boats, with a yearly value of £292,000. The total tonnage

of British vessels entering and clearing amounts to approximately 39,000 tons per annum.

NEW HEBRIDES.

This group is situated in about 5° S. Lat., and 168° E. Long., and has a total area of 5,000 square miles with a population of 70,000, of whom nearly 700 are Europeans. The whole group is under the joint juris-

or other civilised Power, and included within this wide administrative field are a very large number of islands, many of which are, however, uninhabited, and are not included in the groups already mentioned in this article.

The principal of these isolated groups and single islands are as follows :—PHOENIX ISLANDS.—Situated 4° S., and 172° W., comprising the eight islands Enderburg, Birney, Mary, Gardner, Hull, Sydney, McKean, and



A NATIVE CANOE, FIJI, SHOWING TYPICAL SCENERY OF THE COUNTRY

diction of England and France, according to the Anglo-French Convention of 1906, and Protocol of 1914 ; and any deficit in the revenue is met by the two countries. England is represented by a Resident Commissioner.

OTHER ISLANDS.

The British High Commissioner of the Western Pacific has jurisdiction, in accordance with the Order in Council of 1893, over the whole Western Pacific not within the spheres assigned to New Zealand, Australia,

Phoenix. The total area of this group is only 17 square miles and the population numbers about 60. DUCIE ISLAND.—Situated in Lat. 24° S., and Long. 124° W. PITCAIRN ISLAND.—Situated 25° S. Lat., and 130° W. Long., has an area of 2 square miles, and a population of under 150, who are descendants from Europeans (probably seamen mutineers of the *Bounty*). They own to a form of Christianity (Seventh Day Adventists), and have a local council of seven members, under the control of the



A CATAMARAN OF THE SOUTH SEAS

Photo, Underwood

High Commissioner of the Western Pacific. The only products of the island are arrow-root, fruit, vegetables, goats and fowls. DUDOZA ISLAND.—Situated 7° S. Lat., and 161° W. Long., has an area of only 2 square miles, and practically no inhabitants. VICTORIA ISLAND.—Area $1\frac{3}{4}$ square miles. Uninhabited. MALDEN ISLAND.—Situated 4° S. Lat., and 155° W. Long., has an area of about 36 square miles and a population of about 160. JARVIS ISLAND.—Situated on the Equator and in Long. 159° W., is very small in size and has about 20 inhabitants. STARBUCK ISLAND.—Situated in 5° W. Lat., and 157° W. Long., very small and uninhabited. BAKER

ISLANDS.—A tiny group situated directly on the Equator and without permanent inhabitants. PALMYRA.—A small and almost uninhabited island situated 6° N. Lat., and $162^{\circ} 30'$ W. Long. SANTA CRUZ ISLANDS.—Situated 8° S. Lat., and 167° E. Long., comprising seven or eight fair-sized islands which are included in the Solomon Islands Protectorate. DUFF or WILSON ISLANDS.—Situated 9° S. Lat., and 168° E. Long., comprising about twelve islands, the largest of which is nearly round and measures six miles in diameter. This group is included in the Solomon Islands Protectorate.



FINANCE

THE wealth of nations may not be fairly represented by financial statistics alone, for wealth in kind is to a nation what bread is to the individual, but money, as the world-wide medium of exchange, the motive-power of government, and the sinews of war, is the keynote of wealth and the only reliable guide to the economic stability of a vast world-wide Empire of amazingly diversified *necessities*. Bread is the staff of life for some of its subjects, but rice is for others; thousands live on or by the sea and its trade, but millions have never seen it. The laws and religions of the whites are not the laws and religions of the coloured peoples. The fleets and armies of the Empire may secure its integrity, but its finances made its fleets. Its trade may mean more than its revenues, but without one the other would be chaos. To these platitudes additions and elaborations would be easy, for there is no gain-saying the fact that financial stability is the foundation of national as well as individual prosperity.

Great Britain and Ireland

The total revenue of the British Isles previous to the opening the Great European War, in 1914, ranged from £185,000,000 to £195,000,000 per annum, and the expenditure from £178,000,000 to £189,000,000 a year. The total gross amount of the National Debt was approximately £716,288,421. At the close of this world-wide conflict, in 1918-19, the revenue had been increased to £889,000,000, and the expenditure stood at £2,519,000,000, with a National Debt of £5,921,095,819, of which sum, however, about £2,000,000,000 was represented by advances made from the Imperial Exchequer to the British Oversea Dominions and the Empire's Allies. In the

post-war years the figures naturally decreased. An average over five years shows the revenue to have been £840,000,000 and the expenditure £850,000,000. The gross debt, however, was decreased from £7,878 millions in 1920, the highest point ever reached, to £7,652 millions. When considering the *actual* weight of the National Debt upon the revenue of the country, the following factors must be taken into account: (1) the advances made to the Dominions and the Allies; (2) the ratio of the revenue to the Debt. With a revenue of just under £200,000,000 in pre-war years the Debt was £700,000,000, and now that the former has increased about five times the latter has been expanded eight times (allowing for Dominion and Allied Debts but not for German Reparations). There can be no doubt that such a huge National Debt must weigh heavily on the commerce of the United Kingdom for many years unless Government expenditure is drastically reduced and the surplus revenue applied to its reduction.

The revenue of the United Kingdom may be divided into four categories: (1) taxation; (2) services; (3) interest; and (4) miscellaneous. The *principal* sources of Imperial revenue are approximately as follows:—

	£
Income Tax - - -	300,000,000
Excise - - -	135,000,000
Customs - - -	110,000,000
Postal Services - - -	60,000,000
Estate Duties - - -	68,000,000
Stamps - - -	25,000,000
Motor Vehicle Duties - - -	22,000,000
From Loans - - -	23,000,000
War Taxes - - -	8,000,000
Crown Lands - - -	1,000,000
Land, House and Mineral Taxes - - -	1,000,000
Miscellaneous - - -	59,000,000



AERIAL VIEW OF THE CITY OF LONDON

This, the East-Central District of the Great Metropolis, is the Financial Centre of the whole Empire

- (1) Royal Exchange (2) Insurance Centre (3) Bank of England (4) Mansion House (5) Stock Exchange (6) Brokers' Offices (7) Banking Quarters (8) Shipping Centre (9) General Merchants

Photo, Central Aerophoto Co.

The *principal* sources of expenditure may be divided into four categories : (1) Consolidated Fund and Debt charges ; (2) the supply services, including the Civil Service, Navy, Army, and Air Force ; (3) Supplementary local taxation, including education, roads and judicial services, etc. ; and (4) Refunds on reserved taxation to Ireland and miscellaneous (land settlement). The chief sources of Imperial expenditure are as follows :—

	£
National Debt - - -	370,000,000
Civil Services - - -	241,000,000
Postal Services - - -	58,000,000
Navy - - -	58,000,000
Army - - -	41,000,000
Air Force - - -	16,000,000
Local - - -	15,000,000
Customs, Excise and Inland Revenue - - -	12,000,000

The decline in the National expenditure has been unduly protracted by the huge cost of the Civil Service and Debt charges. No sudden drop in expenditure (and consequently in taxation) is possible until these items of the country's expenditure are curtailed.

COLONIAL CONTRIBUTIONS FOR IMPERIAL DEFENCE.

Previous to the Great European War the contributions from the Oversea Dominions to British Naval Expenditure amounted to under £500,000 per annum, and fluctuated very considerably. It must, however, be remembered that the indirect assistance rendered was more considerable as complete warships of large size and power had been built entirely by several of the colonies and Dominions, some for service in the Imperial Fleet and others to form Colonial Navies, thus relieving the Royal Navy from certain duties in the seas patrolled and guarded by these vessels.

Contributions towards Imperial Military Expenditure totalled nearly £1,250,000 per annum, and came from India, the Straits Settlements, Egypt, Hong-Kong, Ceylon, Mauritius and Malta. These contributions fluctuated considerably, but any increased expenditure by the Imperial Government in any of the important oversea possessions was followed by an increase or a new contribution.

GRANTS-IN-AID.

Grants from the Imperial Exchequer are made to many of the smaller Crown Colonies, and have hitherto amounted to about one million sterling per annum (exclusive of territories acquired during the War). Against this small sum must be set the increase in the oversea trade of the United Kingdom caused by the ownership of these Colonies (see under *Commerce*), which only receive Imperial subsidies until financially they "come-of-age."

During post-war years it has, however, been the custom to guarantee the interest on loans issued for revenue-producing public works, rather than to grant annual donations from the Imperial Exchequer.

HISTORY OF THE NATIONAL DEBT.

The first great rise in the National Debt occurred during the Revolution in 1688, when it rose from £664,263 to over £16,000,000. The campaigns of the Duke of Marlborough may be said to have added £38,000,000. This was followed by a steady rise until the War of Independence of the United States added the third great rise in 1776, amounting to £121,000,000. Then came the twenty-two years of warfare with France, between 1793 and 1815, which added £601,500,343 to the growing debt, the annual charge at this period being nearly £33,000,000 per annum. In 1816 the total debt had mounted to £900,436,000. A gradual decrease in the gross liabilities then followed, broken only by the Crimean, South African and China Wars ; the two latter adding £162,000,000, with the result that in 1913-14 the gross liabilities of the State amounted to only a little over £716,000,000, compared with the £900,000,000 of a century before. The average annual charge was but little over £24,000,000, compared with £33,000,000 in 1816, and the average annual decrease in the liabilities exceeded £7,500,000. The Great European War, which commenced in 1914, caused the national indebtedness to rise rapidly. By 1917 it had grown to just over £4,000 millions, involving an annual charge of £127 millions, and by 1920-21 to the enormous figure of £7,878 millions, with an annual charge of £349 millions. Then came steady reductions, beginning with over £200,000,000 in the year 1921-22. In 1928 it stood at £7,652 millions, and there has been little reduction since.



Photo, Underwood

SOMERSET HOUSE, FROM WATERLOO BRIDGE, LONDON
The home of the Inland Revenue. One of the great collecting departments of the Imperial Government

THE NATION'S INCOME.

The gross amount of income (including property) brought to the notice of the Inland Revenue Department (a small proportion of the whole population) in one year was £2,445,000,000 (in 1902-3 it amounted to only £879,000,000). The Super Tax was paid on a gross income of £334,000,000 by 43,000 people. The average annual ascertainable income since 1929 has been about £1,000 millions.

LOCAL TAXATION AND INDEBTEDNESS.

In a similar way to the payments made by the Self-Governing Dominions to their Provincial Governments are the payments made by the Imperial Government to the Local Authorities of (1) England and Wales, (2) Scotland, and (3) Ireland (until formation of the States of the North and South). These sums, which average 15 millions sterling a year, are in lieu of certain excise, licence, estate and other duties, and are used for local administration.

The total expenditure from local taxation (including Imperial contributions) averages as follows :—

England and Wales	-	-	£ 393,000,000
Scotland	-	-	41,000,000

The local indebtedness amounts to :—

England and Wales	-	-	£ 825,000,000
Scotland	-	-	63,000,000

The average annual expenditure of the London County Council is approximately £22 millions and the debt £102 millions (see *London*).

Australia

The Federal Government, alone, can impose duties of customs and excise, State powers in this respect having passed to the Commonwealth on its inauguration. The Constitution also confers on the Federal Government the power to make laws regarding other forms of taxation, but until the passing, in 1910, of an Act imposing a graduated tax on the unimproved value of land this power had not been exercised. Customs and Excise receipts have constituted, so far, the major portion of the Federal Treasurer's revenue, but there are,

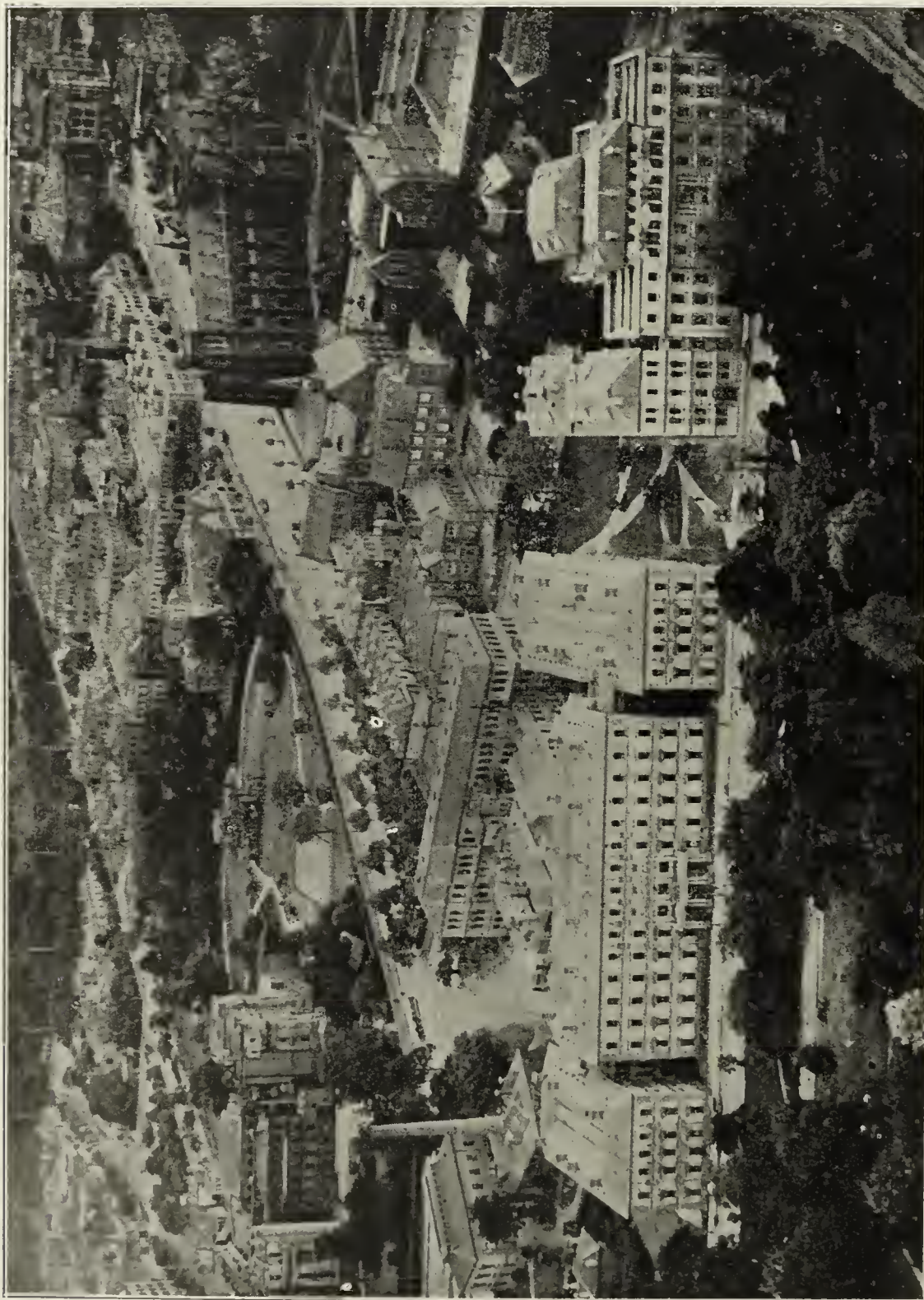
in addition, revenues from services transferred from State to Commonwealth control. The consolidated revenue of the Commonwealth averages from 77 to 78 millions sterling per annum, and is steadily on the increase.

The Commonwealth Government has assumed responsibility for the debts of the Northern Territory, and the railway from Port Augusta to Oodnadatta, and the total Commonwealth debt amounts to just over £373 millions, of which sum the Australian War Expenditure accounted for £400 millions, but only about £289 millions of this total has been charged against loans, the remainder being met out of the Revenue.

The disbursements by the Commonwealth Treasurer of the revenue collected (exclusive of war expenditure) including loan charges, fall naturally, under the bookkeeping system, into three divisions : (1) Expenditure on transferred services ; (2) expenditure on new services ; (3) payments to States of surplus revenue. Of these three, the first two were actual expenditure, while the third item was merely a transfer, the actual expenditure being incurred by the States. Under the Surplus Revenue Act of 1910, however, the bookkeeping system was abolished, and provision was made for the payment to each of the States for a period of ten years, and thereafter until Parliament otherwise provides, of a sum of 25s. per annum per head of the population of the State. All surplus revenue in the hands of the Commonwealth Treasurer at the close of each financial year is payable to the several States in proportion to the population. The average amount repaid each year has been about £9,000,000. The expenditure by the Commonwealth Government averages about £77 millions a year, but, in addition, considerable sums have been spent from loans. The principal sources of expenditure are : (1) War Expenditure (interest on debts) ; (2) Posts ; (3) Treasury Department, including invalid and old age pensions, maternity allowances, etc. ; (4) Payment to the States ; (5) Miscellaneous ; (6) Trade and Customs.

STATES' FINANCE.

It is impossible to draw any hard and fast deductions from mere consideration of the actual totals of revenue and expenditure of the States as compared with similar figures



THE OLD TREASURY BUILDINGS, MELBOURNE
The New Ministry of Finance is situated at the recently established Federal Capital of Canberra
Photo, Australian Government

for other countries. In the first place, the functions of central and local government are by no means identical even throughout the Australian States themselves, while they differ widely from those in force elsewhere. The railway and tramway services may be cited as a very important example in illustration of the truth of the latter portion of the preceding sentence. In other countries these services are chiefly in private hands, while practically the whole of the railways and many of the tramways of Australia have been built and are controlled by the State Governments. It is on this fact, moreover, that a good deal of outside criticism of Australia's loan indebtedness is shattered, for, as will be shown later on, the bulk of the loans has been raised in connection with these railway services, which not only constitute an excellent set-off against the corpus of the debt, but were absolutely essential to the development of the country. Australia, it must be remembered, is a country of "magnificent distances," and the lack of navigable inland waterways renders railway construction a *sine qua non* to all progress. Without railways the record of production alluded to in a preceding article (*Commerce*) could never have been achieved.

The States' revenue is obtained from the following sources :—(a) Taxation ; (b) Public works and services under State control ; (c) Sale and rental of Crown lands ; (d) Payments by the Commonwealth to the States (now regulated by the Surplus Revenue Act 1910) ; (e) Miscellaneous, comprising fees, fines and interest.

The average annual revenue, expenditure, and public debt of the States are as follows :

State.	Revenue.	Expenditure.	Public Debt.
	£	£	£
New South Wales - - - -	44,000,000	45,500,000	259,000,000
Victoria - - - - -	27,000,000	27,500,000	157,000,000
South Australia - - - -	11,000,000	11,500,000	92,000,000
Queensland - - - - -	17,000,000	16,700,000	112,000,000
Tasmania - - - - -	3,000,000	2,800,000	25,000,000
Western Australia - - - -	10,000,000	9,800,000	77,000,000
States' Finance - - - - -	£112,000,000	£113,800,000	£722,000,000

The principal portion of the revenue of the States is derived from public works and services, including railways, tramways, harbours, water supplies and sewage, as well as

from the sale and rental of public lands. The largest items of expenditure are : (1) for the upkeep of the public utilities ; (2) the interest and sinking fund on the public debts ; (3) the maintenance of the police forces ; (4) education ; and (5) miscellaneous.

The total indebtedness of the Australian States is approximately £722 millions (with the Commonwealth £1,094 millions).

There are branches of the Royal Mint in Sydney (1855), Melbourne (1872) and Perth (1899). In addition to all the gold produced in Australia a considerable portion of that obtained in New Zealand finds its way to these Mints. Each State has a Savings Bank protected by a Government guarantee. There is a Commonwealth system of Old-Age and Invalid Pensions, and maternity benefits ; all of these are on a somewhat lavish scale, the qualification for the former being 20 years' residence in Australia and the attainment of 65 (men) and 60 years of age for women ; and for invalid pensions 5 years' residence and the attainment of 16 years, accompanied by permanent incapacity for work.

SPECIAL TAXATION.

Owing to the financial crisis which occurred in 1929-30, special taxation was introduced in the latter year. The crisis was largely caused by the extravagant expenditure of both Commonwealth and States' Governments on social services during a period of world-wide bad trade and monetary stringency. It must be said, however, that the Government of the Commonwealth met the crisis with prompt action, which, when fully carried into effect, should do much to place

Australian credit on a higher level than for many years past. Not only were additional taxes imposed, but, *even more important*, a drastic curtailment of expenditure on social



THE COMMONWEALTH BANK, SYDNEY, NEW SOUTH WALES

Official Photo

and civil services was promised. An efficient check was also placed on the purchase of luxuries abroad. These measures had the effect of preventing an unprecedented drop in the value of Australian securities and credit.

Canada

Early in the history of Canada trade was largely carried on by barter. Beads, blankets, beaver and other furs, tobacco and wheat have been at various times used as substitutes for currency. Further, under the French *regime*, playing cards stamped with a value and redeemable yearly on the receipt of bills of exchange on Paris, came into circulation. In the early years of the British period, the Spanish dollar and the English shilling were the chief mediums of exchange, together with such paper money as the army bills issued by the Government for supplies during the war of 1812. In 1853 a measure was passed providing for the adoption of decimal currency with a dollar equivalent to the American dollar, and from January 1, 1858, the accounts of the province of Canada were kept in terms of dollars. The use of the dollar as a monetary unit was extended throughout the Dominion by the Uniform Currency Act of 1871.

The Canadian dollar is a gold dollar weighing 25.8 grains, nine-tenths fine gold, and thus containing 23.22 grains of gold. Five-dollar and ten-dollar Canadian gold pieces have been coined to a limited extent, but, in the main, the currency of Canada is in the form of silver, nickel and bronze currency for fractional parts of a dollar, and Dominion notes and bank notes for multiples of a dollar. The Canadian gold reserves, which exist for the redemption of Dominion notes, contain, besides Canadian gold coin, British and United States gold coin, which is also legal tender in Canada, as well as bullion.

The Canadian system of public finance, which is based upon that of Great Britain, includes a Consolidated Fund to which are credited, and out of which are paid, the revenues and expenditures properly relating to the fiscal year ending 31st March. There are in addition miscellaneous accounts dealing with loans, debt-redemption, railway administration, capital expenditure on public

works and a variety of other subjects. The total receipts, which were 101,500,000 dollars in 1910—the first time that they exceeded 100,000,000 dollars—have now increased to over 455,500,000 dollars per annum (average). Although on the Consolidated Fund Account only there have been surpluses of revenue over expenditure since 1898, and these have been sufficient to provide for ordinary capital expenditures during the year as well as for the application of considerable sums towards the construction of the National Trans-Continental Railway, in some years extraordinary expenditure has resulted in an actual deficit. The gross amount of the Public Debt, which was approximately 2,900,000,000 dollars in the year 1921, had been reduced to 2,647,000,000 dollars by 1929. From even these few financial facts the outstanding progress and prosperity of Canada will be apparent. There can be little doubt, when all the complicated facts have been carefully reviewed, that Canada is entering upon a period of rapid development.

The revenue is derived principally from the following sources, in the average annual amounts stated :—

	Dollars.
Income Tax - - -	70,000,000
Customs - - -	187,000,000
Excise and War Taxes -	127,000,000
Miscellaneous Receipts -	20,000,000
Post Office - - -	31,000,000

The average annual expenditure of the Dominion Government is 378,400,000 dollars. The principal heads under which expenditure occurs are : (1) Interest on Public Debt and Sinking Fund ; (2) Pensions ; (3) Post Office ; (4) Provincial Subsidies ; (5) Civil government ; (6) Public works, railways and canals ; (7) Other expenses, including Defence.

The subsidies payable by the Dominion to the Provincial Governments (in lieu of Customs and many other items controlled by the Dominion Government) are provided for under the revised Settlement. Each provincial government receives (a) a fixed grant according to population and (b) a grant at the rate of 80 cents per head of the population up to 2,500,000, and at the rate of 60 cents per head of so much of the population as exceeds that number. The Province of British Columbia received an additional grant of 100,000 dollars per annum for a

period of ten years from 1907. An additional grant of 100,000 dollars per annum was also payable to Prince Edward Island, and the payments to Manitoba were revised by the Extension of Boundaries (Manitoba) Act. Other payments to the provincial governments by the Dominion Government consist of special grants as compensation for land (in Prairie Provinces, where the unalienated lands are largely owned by the Dominion) and allowance for buildings, allowances in lieu of debt, etc. The total sums paid under this heading range from 10,000,000 dollars to 13,500,000 dollars per annum. The total allowances paid in this way by the Dominion Government since 1867 are approximately 500,000,000 dollars.

At the Ottawa branch of the Royal Mint, gold, silver and bronze coins to the

(4) licences, fees, mines, railways, education, agriculture, taxes, automobile licences, law stamps, inland revenue, public works, timber rights, property taxes, court and company fees. The expenditure is spread over the whole range of civil government, including legislation, justice, education, and public works. The following table shows the growth of the Provincial revenues and expenditures of Canada, from 1873 to 1928.

The total assets of the Chartered Banks in Canada (1929) amounted to about 3,323,000,000 dollars. This figure increases at the rate of about 1.5 per cent. per annum. The general and financial growth of the Dominion of Canada will be seen from the following comparison of certain vital statistics at different periods in the modern history of the country.

Fiscal year ended						Ordinary revenue.	Ordinary expenditure.	Direct liabilities.
						Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1873	-	-	-	-	-	6,960,922	6,868,884	—
1881	-	-	-	-	-	7,858,698	8,119,701	—
1891	-	-	-	-	-	10,693,815	11,628,353	—
1901	-	-	-	-	-	14,074,991	14,146,059	—
1911	-	-	-	-	-	40,706,948	38,144,511	128,302,848*
1921	-	-	-	-	-	102,030,458	102,569,515	565,470,552
1925	-	-	-	-	-	132,398,729	136,648,242	857,257,360
1926	-	-	-	-	-	146,450,904	144,183,178	893,499,812
1927	-	-	-	-	-	156,845,780	152,211,883	915,237,988
1928	-	-	-	-	-	168,109,505	165,538,910	963,169,888

* Statistics for the province of Saskatchewan are for 1913.

	1881-82	1914	1918	1921	1929
Population - - -	4,324,810	7,467,643	8,361,000	8,767,998	9,796,800
Chartered Bank Deposits -	£18,869,296	£202,483,127	—	£440,000,000	£540,000,000
Savings Bank Deposits -	£4,704,512	£22,813,055	—	£39,161,963	—
Total Revenue - - -	£5,927,069	£33,650,000	£52,605,000	£90,000,000	£92,000,000
Total Expenditure - - -	£5,100,511	£29,250,000	£36,647,000	£83,500,000	£72,000,000
Mineral Production - - -	£2,044,251	£27,000,000	£44,000,000	£30,000,000	£61,000,000

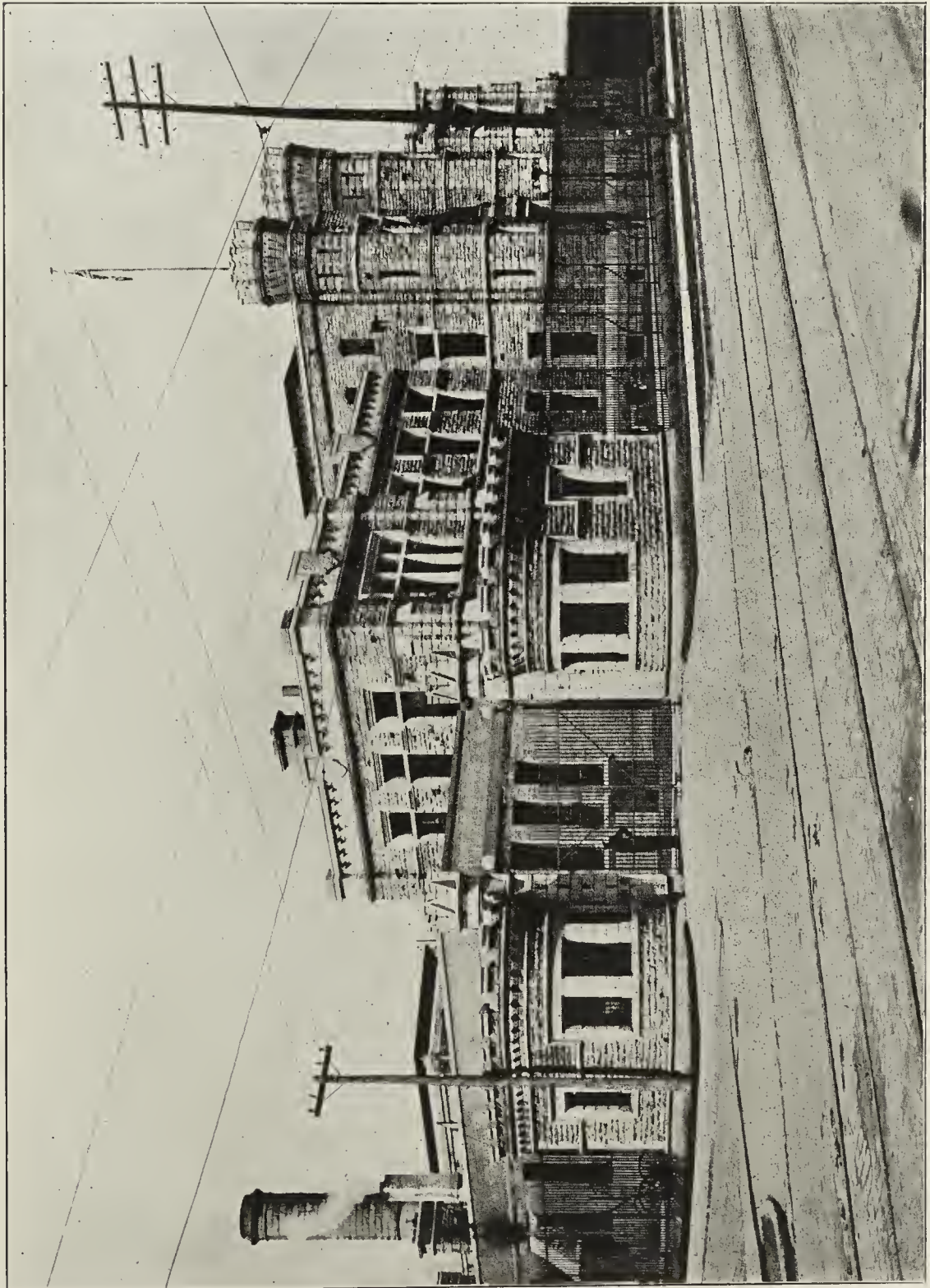
average value of 2,800,000 dollars are issued annually.

PROVINCIAL FINANCE.

The total Provincial revenue and expenditure is approximately 168-170 million dollars and 166-168 million dollars respectively. The revenue is derived from very diverse sources, but the principal receipts come from : (1) the Dominion subsidy ; (2) public lands ; (3) hospital fees ;

FOREIGN CAPITAL IN CANADA.

A young nation like Canada is usually dependent to a considerable degree on foreign capital for the development of its resources. In the opening decade of the century the marked expansion through which Canada passed was largely based on capital imported from Great Britain, at least 2½ billion dollars being thus imported during 1900-12. During the War the latent capital resources of Canada itself were for the first time exploited



Photo, C.P. Rly.

THE ROYAL MINT, OTTAWA, CANADA

on a large scale, nearly 2 billion dollars being raised in loans by the Dominion Government. Since the war the outstanding feature in the situation has been the considerable importation of capital from the United States; in 1913 U.S. capital investments were probably around 650 million dollars; to-day they approach $3\frac{1}{2}$ billion dollars. British investments in Canada have in the meantime slightly declined (see accompanying table).

CAPITAL INVESTMENT BY OTHER COUNTRIES IN CANADA, 1913 AND 1929.

	1913*	1929†
	Dollars.	Dollars.
United States -	650,000,000	3,400,000,000
Great Britain -	2,500,000,000	2,210,000,000
Other Countries -	175,000,000	250,000,000
Total -	3,325,000,000	5,860,000,000

* Estimates of various authorities.

† Estimates of Dominion Bureau of Statistics.

In spite of the large importation of capital from abroad, Canadian capital probably controls at least 60 per cent. of the securities of all enterprises located on Canadian soil. Foreign capital investments as a whole are not greatly in excess of 20 per cent. of the national wealth.

It must be pointed out in addition that Canadians have large amounts of capital invested abroad. The Bureau of Statistics estimate of this amount in 1928 was 1,579,074,000 dollars, divided as follows:—In Great Britain, 131,915,000 dollars; in the United States, 874,626,000 dollars; and in other countries, 572,533,000 dollars.

New Zealand

The various acts relating to the custody and administration of the public moneys and securities are now consolidated in the Public Revenues Act, 1908. All public moneys, excepting those payable to or received by the Post Office, the Government Insurance Office, the Public Trust Office, the Commissioners of the Public Debts Sinking Funds, the New Zealand State guaranteed Advances Office, the State Fire Insurance Office, and the deposits under the New Zealand Consols Act, are paid into one account at the bank called the "Public Account," and are carried

to one or other of the following accounts or funds in the books of the Treasury:—

(1) The Consolidated Fund.

(2) The Public Works Fund.

(3) Separate accounts or funds created under any special Act.

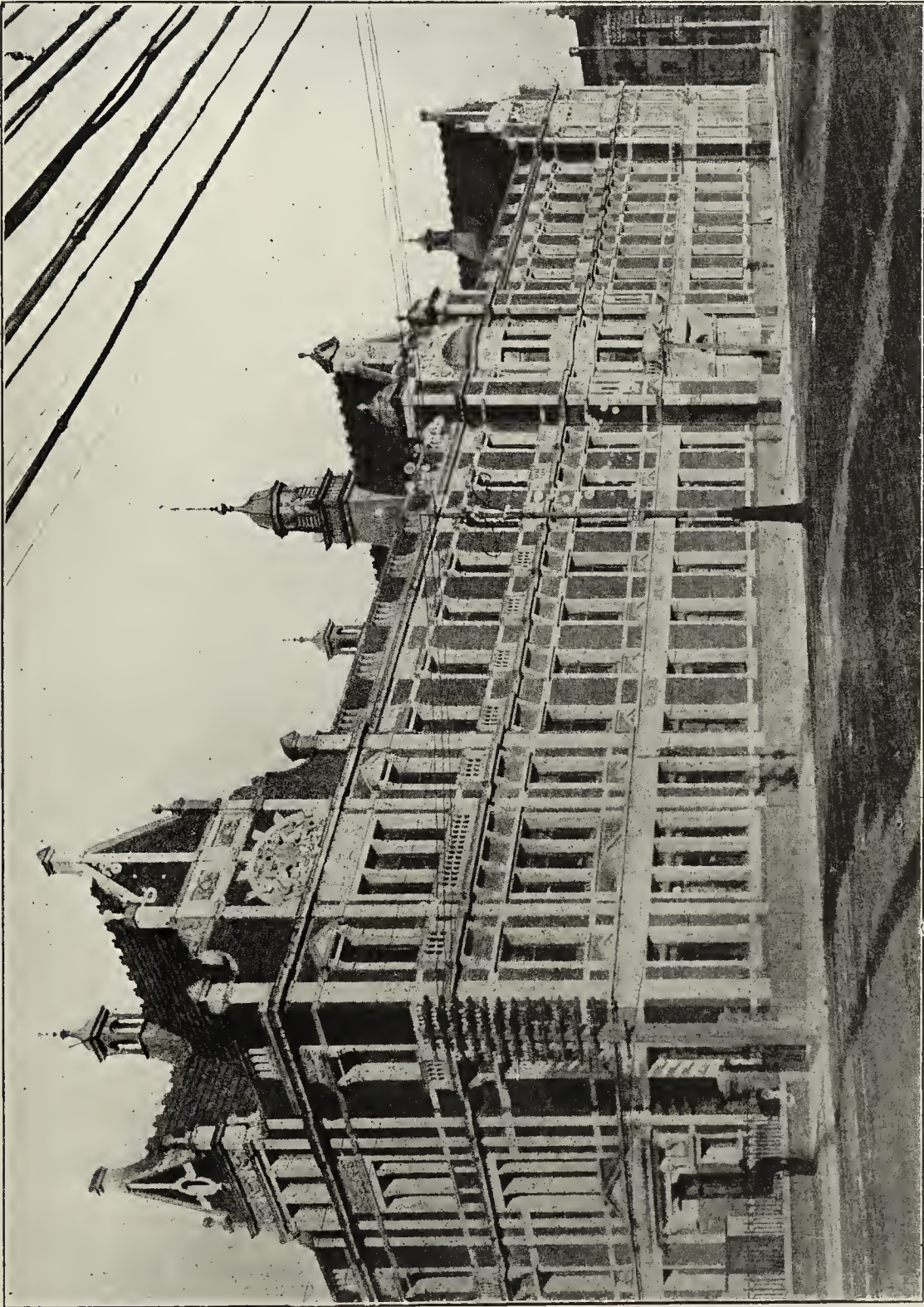
The main Consolidated Fund Account records the ordinary public revenue and expenditure. There are certain subsidiary accounts to this fund which come under the third head in the above category. The Public Works Fund Account contains receipts from loans or aids from the Consolidated Fund and the expenditure on public works, immigration, or special services legally chargeable to that account.

The financial year commences on the 1st day of April and ends on the 31st day of March. The revenue of any financial year is the money received into the Public Account at the bank at Wellington within the year; the expenditure is the money paid at the Treasury within the year, and the money paid by imprestees, of which accounts are received at the Treasury within the year. Imprests not accounted for at the end of a financial year are included in the accounts of the following year.

At the end of each financial year the Appropriation Acts lapse, but the Minister of Finance is authorised for a period of three months from the commencement of the next financial year to pay money in respect of any service, provided the amount does not exceed the unexpended balance voted for that purpose in the previous year, together with an amount equal to one-fourth of such vote.

The usual practice is for Parliament to meet at the end of June in each year, and vote supplies from month to month until the estimated expenditure for the year has been approved and the annual Appropriation Act is passed.

In the audit of expenditure both the pre-audit and post-audit systems are in operation. Pre-audit is applied to payments on the Civil List, interest, civil and military pensions, subsidies to local authorities, purchase of estates, salaries, permanent charges, and all expenditure out of separate accounts. Post-audit is applied to all payments out of departmental appropriations, Imprest Accounts, Old-age Pensions, Post and Telegraph expenditure, and Railway wages and salaries outside of the Head Office.



ADMINISTRATIVE HEADQUARTERS OF THE STATE-OWNED RAILWAYS OF NEW ZEALAND,
AT WELLINGTON, THE CAPITAL

Photo, New Zealand Government

The total revenue of New Zealand averages about £32,300,000 (including Government Railway receipts) per annum, and the expenditure £30,500,000. The gross Public Debt of the Dominion amounts to just over £245,000,000. The principal items of revenue are : railway receipts, £7,400,000 ; Income Tax ; Customs and Excise ; Death Duties ; and other taxes. The chief sources of expenditure are : Public Debt charges, Defence, Railways (£6,200,000), Education, Posts and Telegraphs, and Constabulary (exclusive of extraordinary war expenditure).

There is an Old-age Pension Scheme, whereby every person who is not an alien or an Asiatic is, under certain residential and age conditions, entitled to a pension of about £26 per annum, providing the joint income of a married couple does not exceed £100 a year including the pensions. There is also a system of Widows' Pensions.

The total assets of the banks are £66,000,000, against liabilities £58,000,000, and the notes in circulation have a value of £6,700,000. The Post Offices (2,178) and private savings banks hold deposits averaging £56,000,000.

The Union of South Africa

The total average annual revenue of the Union, exclusive of the Government-owned railways and harbours, amounts approximately to 30 millions sterling, and the expenditure to 23 millions sterling. The Public Debt is about £239 millions (gross), with a sinking fund of over 16 millions sterling. This figure includes the War Debt incurred during 1915–21. The revenue is derived principally from customs, interest, mining taxes, posts, excise, income tax, telegraphs, telephones, stamp duties, native taxation, and miscellaneous sources. The principal items of expenditure are Public Debt charges, provincial administration, defence, posts, police, pensions and miscellaneous. It should be noted that revenue and expenditure statistics seldom include the Government-owned railways and harbours. The capital expenditure on these since the construction of the first line in 1859 has been about £148,700,000. The average annual earnings of the undertakings exceed £27,000,000, which sum usually meets the expenses of operation and the cost of a variety of subsidiary services.

Previous to 1913, when the Financial Relations Act was passed, the governments of the four provinces received only the amounts voted by the Union Parliament as subsidies for the performance of certain services and duties assigned to them, but in that year, by the Financial Relations Act, certain specified revenues were handed over to the Provincial Governments, and subsidies were granted in addition. The Cape, Orange Free State, and Natal Provinces receive also an extra allowance from the Union Exchequer.

The total ordinary revenue and expenditure of the Provinces averages about £10,000,000. They have no public debts. The joint-stock banks have a capital of over £12,000,000, with £96,000,000 on deposit.

Indian Empire

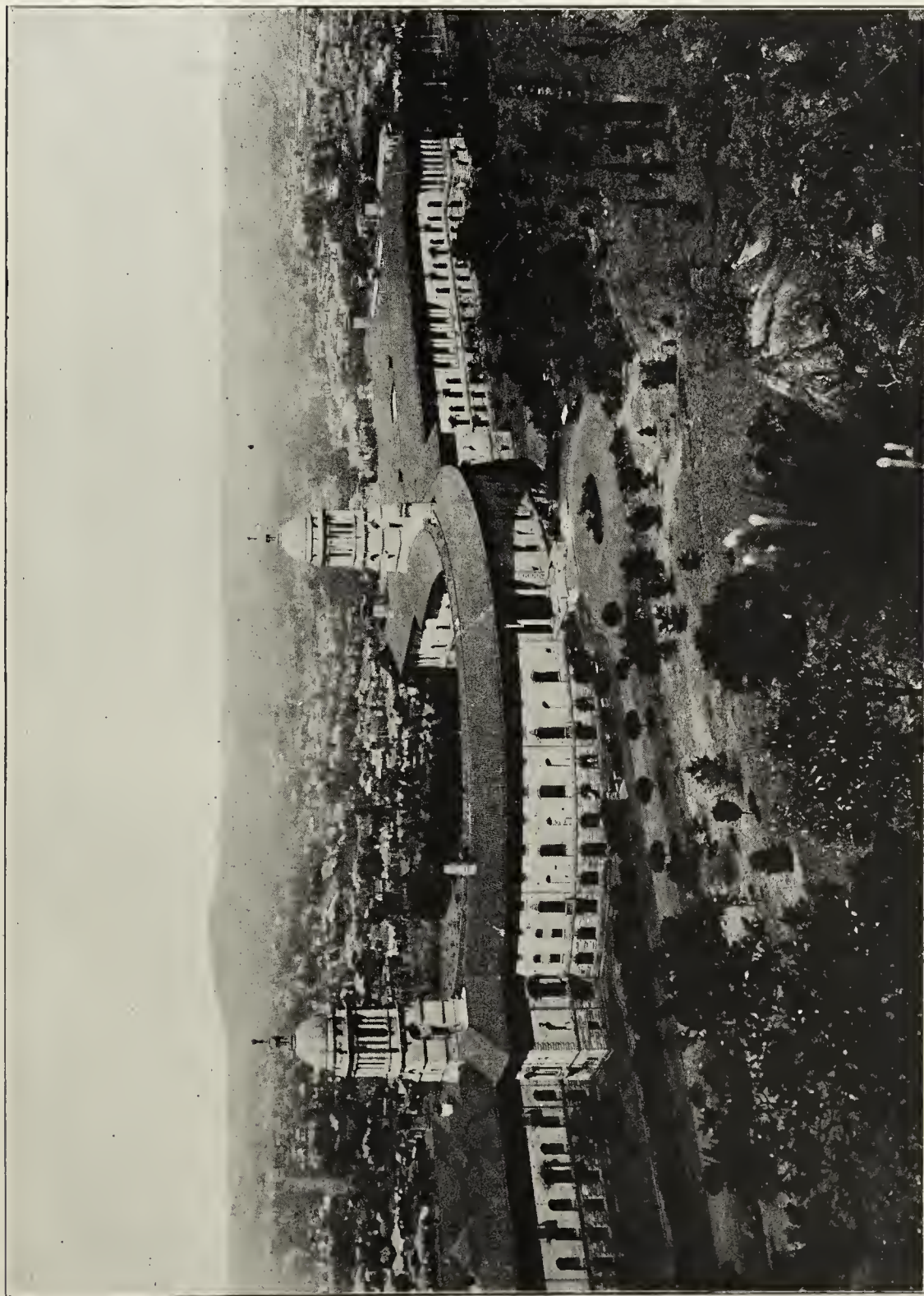
The allocation of the revenues of India have been altered during recent years (1919–21 and 1927–8) so as to secure a certain measure of independence for the Provincial Governments. With this end in view the revenues were divided between the *Central* and the Provincial Governments, so that the latter might have settled incomes of their own for administrative and development purposes. The total annual revenues (gross) average as follows :—

Revenue of Central Government.	Revenue of Provincial Governments.	Total for British India.
£88,000,000	£60,000,000	£148,000,000
Expenditure of Central Government.	Expenditure of Provincial Governments.	Total for British India.
£86,500,000	£57,250,000	£143,750,000

Converted from Rupees to Sterling at Rs. 15 = £1.

The Gross Public Debt of the Central and Provincial Governments is approximately £514 millions.

The revenue of India may be divided into five separate categories : (1) land revenue ; (2) profits on semi-commercial undertakings ; (3) services ; (4) tributes and contributions, and (5) taxation. The principal item is the



THE TREASURY AND MINISTRY OF FINANCE, UNION BUILDINGS, PRETORIA, SOUTH AFRICA

Photo, South African Gov.

Customs, which brings in over £30,000,000 a year, the Railways come next with £28,000,000, only a small portion of which, however, is available for the revenue of the Central Government; then the land revenue, £24,000,000, and Excise follows with £14,000,000; Income Tax £11,000,000; Stamps, £10,000,000; and Salt, £4,000,000.

Among the items of minor importance are tributes by the Native States, fees for registration, profits of the mint, public works and provincial rates.

The principal sources of expenditure are: (1) Military Services; (2) Debt Services; (3) Civil Administration; (4) Collection of Revenue; (5) Railways; (6) Irrigation Works; (7) Posts and Telegraphs; (8) Construction of the new capital at Delhi.

These are the principal headings under which expenditure occurs from the funds of the Central Government. In this connection it must, however, be pointed out that under the new system of decentralisation very considerable expenditures are made by the Provincial Governments for services and works previously paid for by the Central Authority.

LAND REVENUE.

So important is this source of revenue that a few facts concerning it are necessary here for the sake of completeness. Under the heading of *Agriculture* will be found a full description of the systems of land tenure in India, from which it will be seen that there are, in the main, two distinct systems, one relating to estates and the other to small holdings. The land tax is assessed on both of these in different proportions. The former is known as the *Zamindari* system and the latter as *ryotwari*. In Bengal, the United Provinces, the Central Provinces and the Punjab the zamindari system prevails, and in many parts (also in Madras) the land revenue is "settled" for a considerable period, during which time the Government is bound not to enhance the assessment. In many districts of the provinces just enumerated the assessment was fixed *permanently* over 100 years ago, and notwithstanding the enormous rise in the unimproved value of this land the revenue collected from it remains practically unchanged, incurring a loss to the Imperial Exchequer of over four millions sterling per annum (estimated). In

other parts of India the assessment is fixed for periods of from twelve to thirty years. In the *permanently settled* areas the revenue averages about one-fifth of the rental or under one rupee per cultivated acre, whereas in the *temporarily settled* areas—where the ryotwari system prevails, as in Bombay, Madras, Burma and Assam—the assessment averages a little less than one-half of the estimated rental or about $1\frac{1}{2}$ rupees per cultivated acre. The Land Revenue brings in over 24 millions sterling per annum. An estimate of the sale value of the cultivated lands of India places them at over 600 millions sterling. The taxation of the land is a very old custom in India, being advocated by the Brahmins of old, adopted by the Mohammedan conquerors and maintained by the Anglo-Indian Government.

OPIUM.

Although the opium monopoly exercised by the Imperial Government is now of comparatively minor importance as a producer of revenue so fierce is the controversy which has raged around it, that a few particulars here may not be out of place. The cultivation of the poppy for opium production has for many years been confined almost entirely to the United Provinces, so far as British India is concerned. It is cultivated in a few of the Native States, but the rulers of these States have long ago agreed to co-operate with the Imperial authorities in restricting its production and export, and it is taxed at the high rate of £40 per chest or 5s. 8d. per pound. Throughout the whole of India opium production is a government monopoly. The cultivator of the poppies receives an advance from the State to enable him to grow the crop and is bound in return to sell the whole of the produce at a fixed price to the Government Opium Agents. It is then taken to the State factory at Gazipur and prepared for sale. The chests containing the drug are sold by auction in Calcutta. Hitherto the largest portion of the exports of Indian opium, which is the finest in the world, has been purchased for sale in China, but by agreement with the Chinese Government the exports of opium to that country have ceased.

In addition, however, to the export of this drug, which goes not only to China but to



THE CHARTERED
BANK OF INDIA,
CALCUTTA



THE CHARTERED
BANK OF INDIA,
BOMBAY



other countries for medicinal and other purposes, a considerable quantity is used for home consumption. The export of opium for medicinal purposes was also prohibited in 1926. Although the largest producer is the United Provinces it is also grown in some of the Native States of Rajputana and Central India. The Central Indian product is known as "Malwa opium," and is grown principally for local consumption and to supply poppy seeds; only about 30 per cent. of the total Indian exports come from Central India, of which Ajmer-Merwara is the centre of production. The profits hitherto derived by the Government from the sale and taxation of opium have ranged from 3 to 4 millions sterling per annum, but this has dropped to about £1,300,000. The loss which will gradually be sustained by its suppression will have to be made up elsewhere, as the crop was a regular one and the income derived a staple of revenue.

OTHER TAXES.

The taxation of salt forms another minor staple of Indian revenue, which during recent years has been greatly reduced without any appreciable and consequent increase in consumption. The tax now amounts to only 1d. per 5lb., and produces only 4½ millions sterling per annum compared with over 6 millions some years ago when the duty was higher. It is, however, considered that in normal times this tax is best kept very low in order to provide a fiscal reserve of great value in emergencies.

Although nearly one-sixth of the revenue from Excise is derived directly or indirectly from opium, by far the largest proportion comes from fermented and spiritous liquors. Notwithstanding the fact that the use of intoxicants is prohibited by the religion of Hindus and Mohammedans, many native trees and plants are utilised for producing fermented drinks, foremost among which is the palm which furnishes a drink known as "toddy." All these liquors, with the exception of that produced from the *mahua* tree, are, however, too weak in alcohol for distillation.

The minimum income liable to taxation was raised in 1904 from £33 to £66 per annum and in more recent years to £133. Incomes derived from agriculture are exempt from income tax, and consequently it is the pro-

fessional and commercial classes and the Government employees who provide the bulk of the revenue under this heading. It is estimated that no less than 18 per cent. of the total amount derived from this tax is paid by Government Officials. European residents in India contribute more largely to the up-keep of the Empire through this tax than in any other direct way. There is also a super tax on the incomes of individuals or companies above 50,000 rupees a year.

The Indian Customs are of necessity of a somewhat irregular character. To the native mind (in common with that of most of the peoples of the world to-day) the levying of indirect taxes on trade are the best means of producing revenue. After the Mutiny a customs rate of from 5 to 10 per cent. was raised on almost all imports, but this was gradually reduced to 5 per cent., and in 1882 was entirely abandoned. In 1894 it was again imposed, but after much controversy with Great Britain, it was agreed that cotton yarns should be admitted free, and cotton cloth taxed only 3½ per cent. with a tax of equal amount on the Indian product. This has always been a source of annoyance to Indian mill owners. Many kinds of metal goods are also either admitted free or taxed only 1 per cent, these two categories covering the bulk of the imports from the United Kingdom to India. Export duties are charged only on rice and jute; the former being mainly exported from Burma. There were increases in the customs duties in 1916, 1917, 1921, 1922 and 1927.

CURRENCY.

The standard of currency is the silver rupee, which has a nominal value of 1s. 4d. but in actual silver value is worth only 10d. The value of the rupees in circulation is estimated at £100,000,000, there is, however, in addition, £33,000,000 worth of rupee-notes against which is a gold and silver reserve invested at interest of over £8,000,000.

In order to safeguard the Government against the danger of a drop in the export trade—which balances the conversion of large sums in rupees of nominal value for gold of standard value (necessitated by the Indian expenditure in Great Britain) there is also a Gold Standard Reserve, or money invested in gold securities of an easily realisable character, amounting to over



THE BANK BUILDINGS, SALISBURY, SOUTHERN RHODESIA

£40,000,000, which has been set aside from the large profits made by the Indian Government on the coinage of rupees (10d. against 1s. 4d. and 1s. 6d.).

Egypt

Much information concerning the finances of the Kingdom of Egypt will be found in the long article devoted to this separate nation which is in perpetual treaty alliance with the Empire, but in order to complete the survey a few statistics must be given here.

The total revenue of Egypt averages about £E39,000,000, and the expenditure £E40,000,000. The total indebtedness amounts to approximately £E91,000,000.

was run entirely out of revenue. By its Charter the British South Africa Company was responsible for the cost of maintaining the Government of Rhodesia. When the revenue fell short of the expenditure the difference had to be made good out of the private purse of the Chartered Company. Loans could not be raised. Municipalities, on the other hand, had the power of raising money by loan, and the towns of Salisbury and Bulawayo took advantage of this. The capital of the British South Africa Company was £9,000,000 with £1,250,000 in Debentures. No dividends were paid on that capital. The revenue of Rhodesia when Responsible Government was assumed amounted to £1,500,000, and the expenditure to £1,400,000.

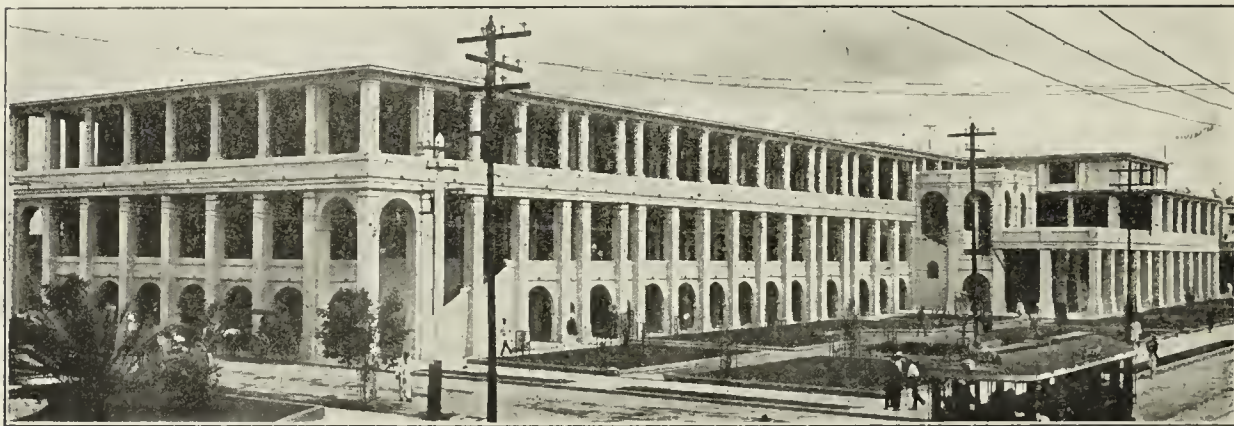


Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

THE POST OFFICE AND TREASURY BUILDINGS, KINGSTON, JAMAICA (B.W.I.)

The revenue is derived principally from (1) land taxes; (2) railways; (3) customs; (4) tobacco tax; (5) miscellaneous. The principal heads of expenditure are (1) civil administration; (2) consolidated Debt (*q.v.*); (3) railways, post and telegraphs; (4) army; (5) reserve fund; (6) miscellaneous.

Southern Rhodesia

So far as Southern Rhodesia is concerned there was no public debt previous to the assumption of self-government, but it was then found necessary to raise one not only to buy certain property and rights belonging to the Chartered Company but also for the purpose of continuing the public works policy. Up to the year 1923 the country

When the British South Africa Company relinquished its administration a sum of £300,000, representing an advance for general development, was owing to the Imperial Government. A condition of the grant of Responsible Government was the repayment of this loan plus a sum of £2,000,000 by the end of the year 1923. In return for this, the Colony became possessed of all the public buildings and movable assets of the outgoing administration and some 43,000,000 acres of unalienated Crown land. In 1923, a loan of £3,000,000 was raised in London to meet the above liabilities and to provide funds for public works and development.

In 1925, a further loan of £1,000,000 was successfully floated in South Africa for the purpose of capital expenditure on public

works, telegraphs and Telephones, increased capital for the Land and Agricultural Bank, the construction of roads and bridges, water supplies in native reserves, assistance to the farming and mining industries and loans to public bodies.

Interest at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum is payable in respect of both the London Issue of Inscribed Stock and the Local Registered Stock and this, together with the contributions to the Sinking Funds, at the rate of 1 per cent. per annum, is payable out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund.

Further funds for capital expenditure have been obtained through the issue of Loan Certificates and in spite of the fact that the receipts of the Post Office Savings Bank have not diminished, £180,000 has been invested by the Rhodesian public in this class of security.

The Public Debt now amounts to just over £4,000,000 ; and the Revenue and Expenditure to just under £2,000,000 and £1,800,000 respectively.

Other Colonies

The financial position of the Dominion of Newfoundland and of the smaller colonies and dependencies will be found under their respective headings.

Financial Position of the Empire

A comparison is given below of the *average* annual revenue and expenditure of the British Empire as a whole, during three epoch-making periods of modern history :—

Period.				Total Revenue.	Total Expenditure.	Total Indebtedness.
				£	£	£
Three years previous to 1914	-	-		385,179,000	389,057,000	1,372,349,000
" " " 1918	-	-		1,188,357,000	2,839,040,700	7,896,350,000
" " " 1923	-	-		1,646,576,504	1,591,288,301	9,751,885,201
" " " 1930	-	-		1,237,691,000	1,201,000,000	9,863,300,000



FORESTS AND TIMBER

THE principal commercial timbers, together with the various purposes for which each kind is suitable, grown in the great forest-covered areas of *Greater Britain* are treated authoritatively in the following articles. Those Dominions and Colonies where the forests are either commercially inaccessible or where the timber is of a purely tropical or Equatorial type, have been omitted from this article. Statistics of forest areas in the states not included will be found under the respective territorial headings.

AUSTRALIA.

The principal timber tree of New South Wales is the ironbark. It is first of all hardwoods in point of strength and durability, and its qualities are so well recognised in general construction that with engineers and builders it ranks as one of the finest of all Australian timbers. It attains a height of 100 to 150 ft., with a diameter of 2 to 5 ft., and has a wide distribution, being found along the dividing range in the coast district and in the central region towards the Queensland border. There are four varieties, the white or grey (*E. paniculata*), the narrow leaved (*E. Creba*), the broad leaved (*E. siderophloia*), and the red (*E. sideroxylon*). The high reputation of New South Wales ironbark is chiefly due to the fine qualities of the white and narrow leaved varieties. They are used extensively in the building of bridges and culverts, for railway sleepers, fencing posts, and for framing, naves, spokes, poles, and shafts in carriage and wagon building. Beams of this timber are of great strength, and are largely employed for girders

and joists of upper floors of stores for heavy goods.

Tallow wood (*E. microcorys*) is strong, heavy, very durable, not easily split, and planes and turns well. It is largely used for bridge-decking, house-flooring, girders, piles, and fencing posts, and ranks with blackbutt as the best of the State's hardwoods for paving blocks.

Blackbutt (*E. pilularis*) is a strong and durable timber, easily split as a rule, but sometimes inlocked in grain. It is a fine hardwood for house and ship building and bridge-decking, and about the most durable of all for street-paving. For general excellence it ranks with tallow wood.

Grey Gum (*E. propinqua*). The timber of this tree is like iron bark in appearance, and is considered an efficient substitute for the latter in many kinds of works, but not for long girders or beams. It makes excellent railway sleepers. In coachbuilders' work it is used for felloes and spokes, and makes very durable fencing posts and shingles.

Murray red gum (*E. rostrata*). This is the common river gum of all the Eastern States. It is usually short in grain, and inlocked, and hence it is not a very free-splitting timber. It has a tendency to shell when laid down for decking and flooring, but is one of the best hardwoods for use in contact with the ground, being largely used for poles, fencing posts, house foundations, wood paving, and railway sleepers.

The forest variety of red gum (*E. tereticornis*) is widely distributed, but the best supplies are found in the coast district south of Sydney. It is suitable for the same purposes as the river red gum.

White mahogany (*E. acmenoides*). This is a pale-coloured, tough, hard timber, which

resembles tallow wood in appearance, and is often substituted for it.

Red mahogany (*E. resinifera*). A handsome timber, of a rich red colour, very durable, and hardens greatly with age. It is employed for general shipbuilding work, street paving, fencing and weatherboards.

Grey box (*E. hemiphloia*) is found in the coastal and mountain districts. It is a very tough inlocked timber of a greyish or pale brown colour, very durable in contact with the ground, and hence used for railway sleepers, fence posts, piles, and girders. It is also employed for heavy framing and naves, wheel cogs, shafts, dray poles, and spokes.

Brush box (*Tristania conferta*) extends from Port Stephens to the River Tweed, in the coast district. It is largely used for bullock yokes, tool handles and planes.

Sydney blue gum (*E. Saligna*) is of a pale red colour, straight grained, and easy to work. It is largely used for buildings, ship's planks, felloes of wheels, and paving blocks.

Woollybutt (*E. longifolia*) attains a height of 100 to 150 ft., with a diameter of 3 to 5 ft., and is found in the coast district south of Sydney. It is used for house building, fencing, felloes, spokes, and wheelwrights' work generally. On account of its lasting qualities in contact with the ground, and resistance to wear under foot, it is a good material for street-paving.

Spotted gum (*E. maculata*) attains a height of 100 to 150 ft., with a diameter of 2 to 4 ft. It is one of the best of hardwoods for bending, even when cold, and is largely used in wheelwrights' and coachbuilders' work for poles, shafts, cross-pieces, naves, and spokes; also for framing and house-building, ship plank-ing, decking of bridges, and wood paving.

Turpentine (*Syncarpia laurifolia*) grows to a height of 150 to 200 ft., and has a diameter of 3 to 5 ft. It flourishes in the coastal districts. It has the quality of great durability in the ground or under water, and is largely used for piles of jetties, wharves and bridges.



IN A JARRAH FOREST, WEST AUSTRALIA

Photo, Australian Government

It is also used for pillars and girders of buildings, wood-paving, and hewn posts and rails.

Among the conifers, Colonial Moreton Bay, or hoop pine (*Araucaria Cunninghamii*) reaches a height of 150 to 200 ft., and a diameter of 2 to 4 ft. It is the main cheap soft wood of New South Wales, and is extensively used for packing cases and flooring, ceiling and lining boards, etc. Its habitat extends from the Bellinger River, north of Sydney, to Northern Queensland.

Brown pine (*Podocarpus elata*) is used for the same purposes as Colonial pine, and is also in high repute for bridge, jetty and pier piles.

Cypress pine (*Callistris*). Under this head are included the red or black pine (*C. calcarata*), Murray pine (*C. verrucosa*), Port Macquarie pine (*C. Macleayana*), and the Richmond River cypress pine (*C. comellaris*). They are chiefly found in the dry western country, but the Richmond River and Port Macquarie varieties are scattered through the northern coastal district. They are used largely for buildings liable to the attacks of white ants.

Among timber of fine grain, red cedar (*Cedrela Australis*) stands first. It is chiefly used for furniture and cabinet making, doors, panelling, and fittings. It usually attains to a height of 100 ft., with a diameter of 6 ft.

Red bean (*Dysoxylon Muelleri*) is of a red colour, with a finely-figured grain. It is an excellent furniture wood, and is greatly prized for naves of wheels.

Rosewood (*Dysoxylon Fraserianum*) is of a reddish colour, and easily wrought, and is used for furniture, turnery, carving, and cabinet work; also for moulding, planes, window joints, and house fittings. This tree attains a height of 100 ft., and a diameter of 4 to 6 ft. It has a wide distribution in the northern coastal district.

White beech (*Gmelina Leichhardtii*) attains a height of 100 to 150 ft., with a diameter of 3 to 5 ft. Its timber is strong, close-grained, but easy to work, and is in great request for carving, flooring, and house fittings. It is also used for vats and casks.

Silky oak (*Grevillea robusta* and *Orites excelsa*). Both these timbers are found in the north coast region. The available supplies of the latter are still abundant, but the former is now getting scarce in many places. The timber is light in colour, showing a fine oak-like grain, and splits easily. It is largely

used in all coopers' work for wine and tallow casks, and makes handsome furniture.

Tulipwood (*Harpullia pendula*) attains a height of 50 to 60 ft., and yields a hard, close-grained timber. It is used for cabinet work, door panels, dadoes, and sometimes billiard tables.

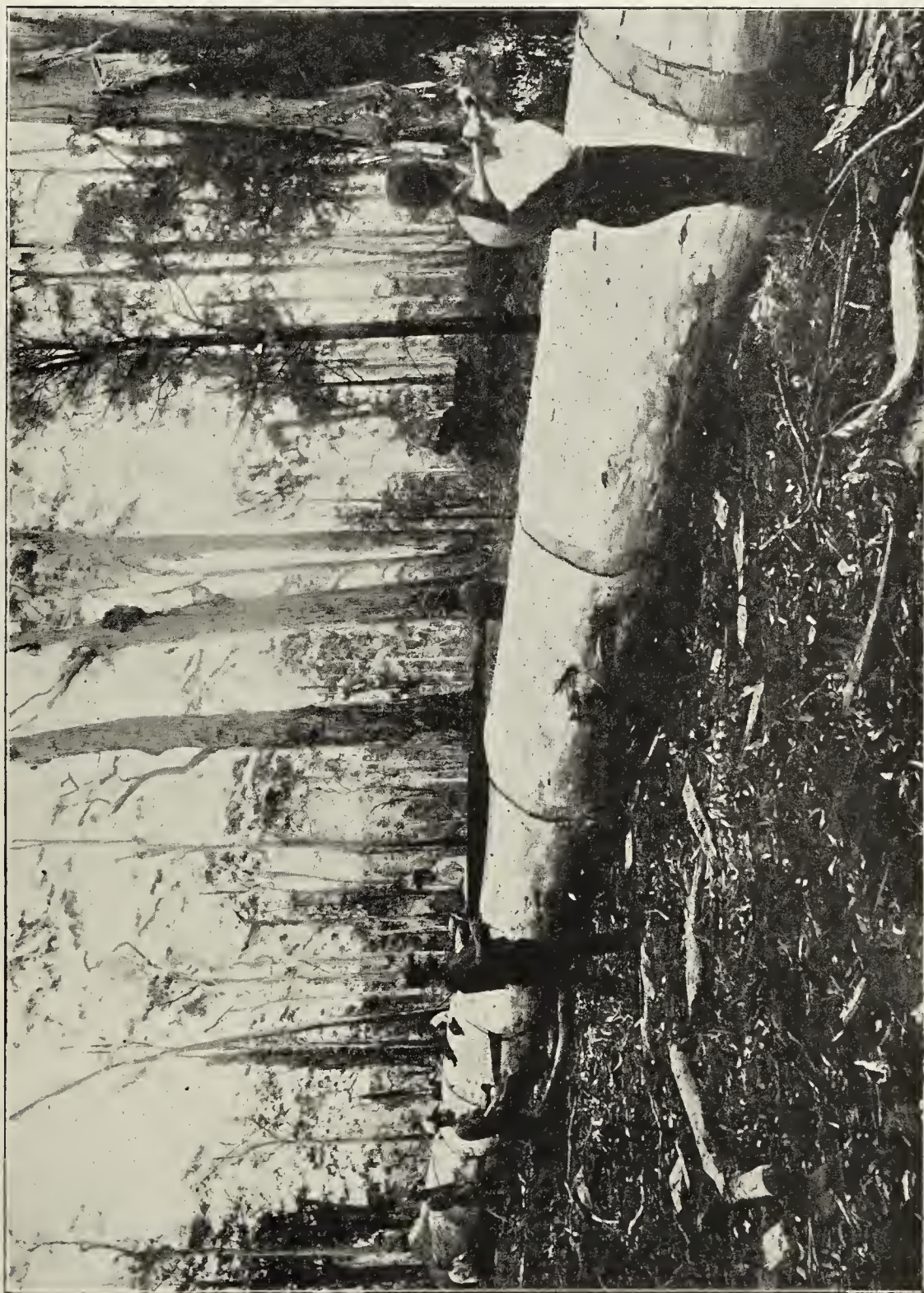
Coachwood (*Ceratopetalum apetalum*) is a light, soft, close-grained, and tough timber, and suitable for cabinet-work, boat, and coach-building. The height of the tree is 50 to 70 ft., and the diameter 12 to 24 ins.

In Queensland the chief supply of mill timber, such as ironbark and other eucalypts, as well as Moreton Bay pine (*Araucaria Cunninghamii*) is in the southern coastal districts, extending from the New South Wales border to the town of Gladstone in the north, and from these districts the southern mills have been obtaining their logs, but the mature marketable timber within easy reach has now been worked out, and supplies are principally confined to rough country that requires considerable outlay in road-making before the logs can be transported to the mills.

In the district extending from Rockhampton to Ingham, there is little timber suitable for sawmills. This region is, therefore, largely dependent for sawn timber on the southern mills. Northward to Ingham the red cedar (*Cedrela Toona*), the kauri pine (*Agathis Palmerstoni*), and the black bean (*Castanospermum Australe*) are the timbers most in demand. There are large supplies of these valuable trees on the Barron Valley reserves, and in other localities between Ingham and Port Douglas.

Besides the timbers mentioned, there are many other useful trees which only require to be better known to become of marketable value and be eagerly sought after. In the south-western part of Queensland the cypress pine (*Callistris robusta*) is found in large quantities. It is used for building and general purposes by the settlers, and, on account of its durability, is a most valuable timber. Many of the finest timbers of Queensland are common to New South Wales also, and their commercial uses have been described in dealing with that State.

The limited area of natural forest in South Australia has caused the State to devote itself more to plantation work than has been found necessary in the other States. The work done in this direction has been carried



A KARRI FOREST IN WESTERN AUSTRALIA
The log being cut is 110 feet in length

Photo, Agent-General for Western Australia

out with good judgment, and in planting areas of treeless plain and hill slope with belts of young trees, such as blue gum, sugar gum, red gum and white ironbark, great success has been achieved. Originally, Tasmanian blue gum was planted extensively, but the dry climate and irregular rainfall proved unfavourable to its cultivation. In districts with a fair rainfall, good results were, however, obtained, many of the trees growing into excellent timber in twenty years, with a height of 60 to 70 ft., and a girth of 6 to 7 ft. The tree from which the best results were obtained was the sugar gum (*E. corynocalyx*), a tree indigenous to the State, and found chiefly in the Flinders range, which flourishes at a fair elevation, in strong, retentive soil, subject to a regular rainfall. The timber from this tree is held in high repute, on account of its toughness and durability. It is used chiefly for railway sleepers, telegraph poles, coach-building, and in wharf and jetty construction.

Two other eucalypts found in this State are the white ironbark (*E. leucoxylon*), locally known as blue gum, and the grey box (*E. hemiphloia*), which furnish strong, tough, and durable timber inlocked in grain, and suitable for the same purpose as sugar gum. The common flooded variety of red gum has a fairly wide distribution in the State, being found in clay flats and along streams and watercourses. Among conifers which have been grown with success are the Monterey, the maritime, aleppo, and stone pines. The Monterey pine (*P. insignis*) outstrips all other trees in growth, and its timber, though softer than other first class pines, is utilised for deal tables, packing cases, picket fencing, shelving, and generally for purposes where the common deal is useful.

The maritime, aleppo, and stone pines are naturally of slower growth, and though in Europe they furnish useful timber, they have not reached a suitable age in this State for utilisation. The upright poplar (*P. fastigiata*) grows well over a large area. Its timber is serviceable for packing cases, and flooring boards. Among foreign trees which have been successfully tried is the American ash (*fraxinus Americana*). The timber cut from it has been used in coach-building work, and compares favourably in quality with timber of the same kind imported from America.

In Tasmania, the principal hardwoods of the eucalyptus family are blue gum, stringybark, peppermint, and silver-top ironbark; while among woods of fine grain are blackwood, beech or myrtle, sassafras, native cherry, native box, and casuarina or cheoak. Of these trees, blue gum, stringybark, and the other eucalypts are plentiful in all parts of the State, blackwood and beech are widely distributed, while the vines are chiefly found in the western and southern parts of the island. The blue gum furnishes a hard, durable, and heavy timber, which is also capable of taking a high polish. It is used for ship-building, jetty and bridgework, house frames, coach-building, and tool-handles. Its grain is tough and inlocked, and hence it is in great demand for railway sleepers and felloes. Being a rapid grower, and of a straight shapely habit, it is a favourite for plantations and street avenues, and, in addition to being grown in Victoria and Tasmania, where it is indigenous, it is largely planted in South Australia.

The stringybark (*E. obliqua*) furnishes, perhaps, the most valuable hardwood of the Tasmanian forests, and is in common use for general building and construction. It is also employed for railway sleepers (being very durable in the ground), spokes, felloes, and bridge-decking. The peppermint (*E. amygdalina*) is a durable timber, and suitable for piles, posts, or other material required to be placed in contact with the ground. The white gum (*E. viminalis*) is not a lasting wood when exposed to the weather, but is very suitable for interior construction, such as house frames, floors and rough furniture. Among other ordinary hardwoods in use locally are silver-top ironbark (*E. sieberiana*), cider gum (*E. gunnii*), and green-topped stringybark (*E. haemastoma*).

Of the three principal conifers, the Huon pine is the most valuable, and furnishes a fine, strong, and light timber. It is said to be almost indestructible in water, and hence is largely used for boat planking, while, owing to its beautiful grain, it is greatly prized for furniture, panelling, and wainscoting. The King William variety is one of the lightest of pines; being very tough, it is used for racing sculls, and as it is easily wrought, and takes a beautiful finish, it is also a favourite timber in joiners' work. Celery-top pine is a strong, heavy timber, suitable



A FOREST OF WHITE STRINGYBARK, NEW SOUTH WALES

Photo, Australian Government

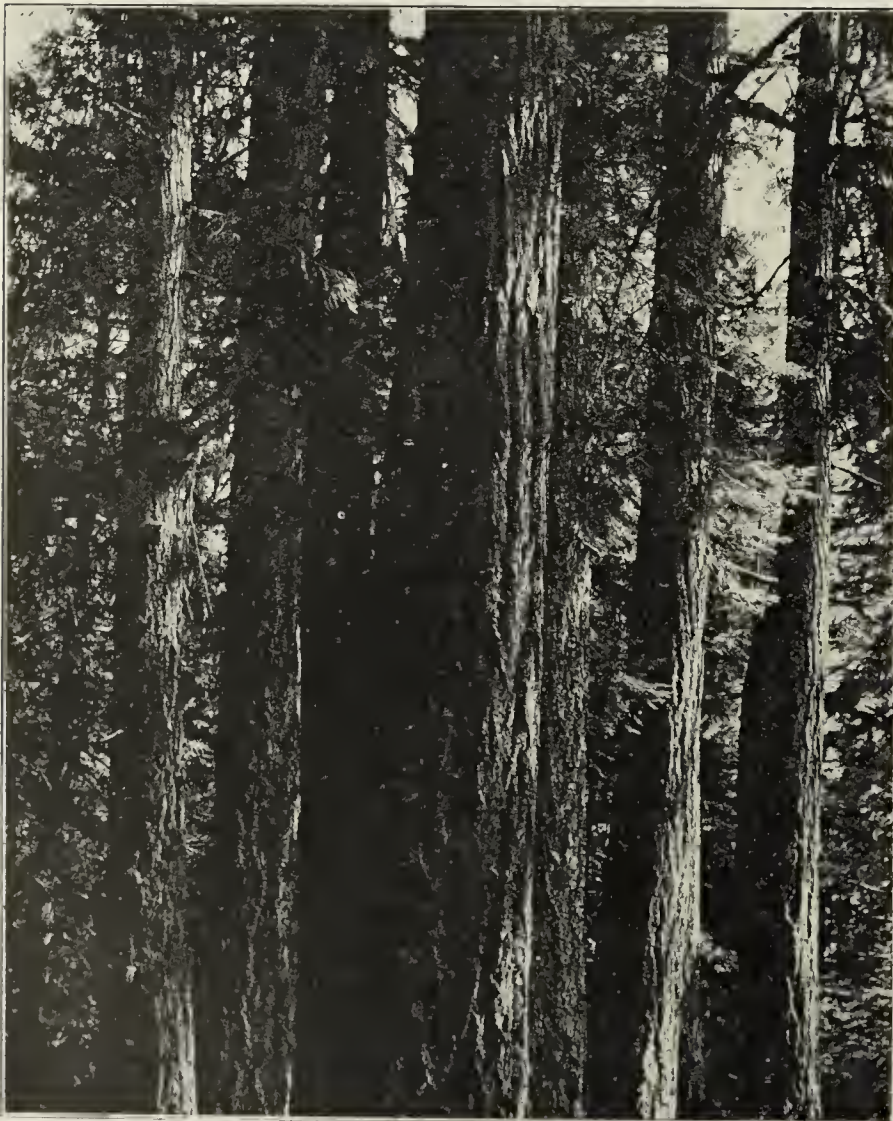
for furniture, flooring, house frames, coopers' work, and masts. It is exceedingly durable, and in seasoning shrinks very little.

The evergreen beech or myrtle (*Fagus Cunninghamii*) resembles in appearance the hardest and heaviest English beech. There are two varieties, the white and red. The former is chiefly used for house frames, floors, and interior fittings and coopers' work; and the latter for furniture, panelling, parquetry and picture frames. The blackwood (*Acacia melanoxylon*) is the most valuable of the fine grained woods found in the island. It is extensively used for furniture of all kinds, billiard tables, pianos, panelling of railway carriages, wainscoting, and interior fittings generally.

Of the principal timber trees found in Victoria, the river red gum (*E. rostrata*), on account of its durability and the many uses to which it is put, ranks first. It is of a deep red, very heavy, hard, and dense, with inlocked grain, and is greatly valued for use in contact with the ground, hence it is preferred for piles, railway sleepers, fencing posts, house foundations, etc. It is also largely employed for bridges and pier decking, short beams, cross-ties, and paving blocks, and makes excellent fuel and charcoal.

Red ironbark (*E. leucoxydon*), this timber is heavy, dense, strong, and very durable in contact with the ground. Its growth is exceedingly slow, the tree being estimated to reach maturity in from 70 to 120 years. It is greatly valued for bridge beams and piles, and ranks with grey box as the most durable timber for railway sleepers. It is also cut for railway wagon frames, bridge, pier, and jetty timber, and for spokes, etc., in coach-builders' work. The white variety of this tree has leaves and fruit similar to the red ironbark, but the bark is smooth and spotted in appearance like a gum, while the wood is of a pale brown or grey colour. It is largely cut for railway sleepers, bridge beams, and fencing posts.

Grey box (*E. hemiphloia*). This timber grows to a height of 80 to 130 ft., with a diameter of 2 to 4 ft. Its timber is of a pale brown or grey, inlocked in grain, and very heavy, hard, and durable. It is greatly prized for railway



DOUGLAS FIR TREES, BRITISH COLUMBIA, CANADA

sleepers, lasting from thirty to thirty-five years in the track, and is also in great demand for telegraph poles, posts, bridge and culvert beams, and piles, mine props, shafts, wheel spokes, and naves.

The Bairnsdale grey box (*E. Bosistoana*) is of straight symmetrical habit, and attains a height of 100 to 150 ft., with a diameter of 2 to 5 ft. It furnishes the finest and most durable pile timber for wharves and jetties, lengths of 60 to 70 ft. being obtainable. It is also in high repute for sleepers, railway wagon frames, bridge decking, sheet piling, fencing posts, spokes and felloes, and studs and ground plates of wooden buildings.

Yellow stringybark (*E. Muelleriana*) is a strong, tough, and durable timber, and is chiefly used for jetty and pier work (piles, beams and decking), and locally for fencing posts.

Blue gum (*E. globulus*) is a fine shapely tree, with a straight symmetrical bole, and attains its best development in mountain gorges or on sheltered slopes. The timber is strong and durable, and weighs about 60 lb. per cubic foot. When cut from mature trees, it makes good railway sleepers. It is used for upper timbers, and decking in jetty and bridge work, bridge piles, shafts, felloes, spokes, and framework of vehicles, and in general building and construction.

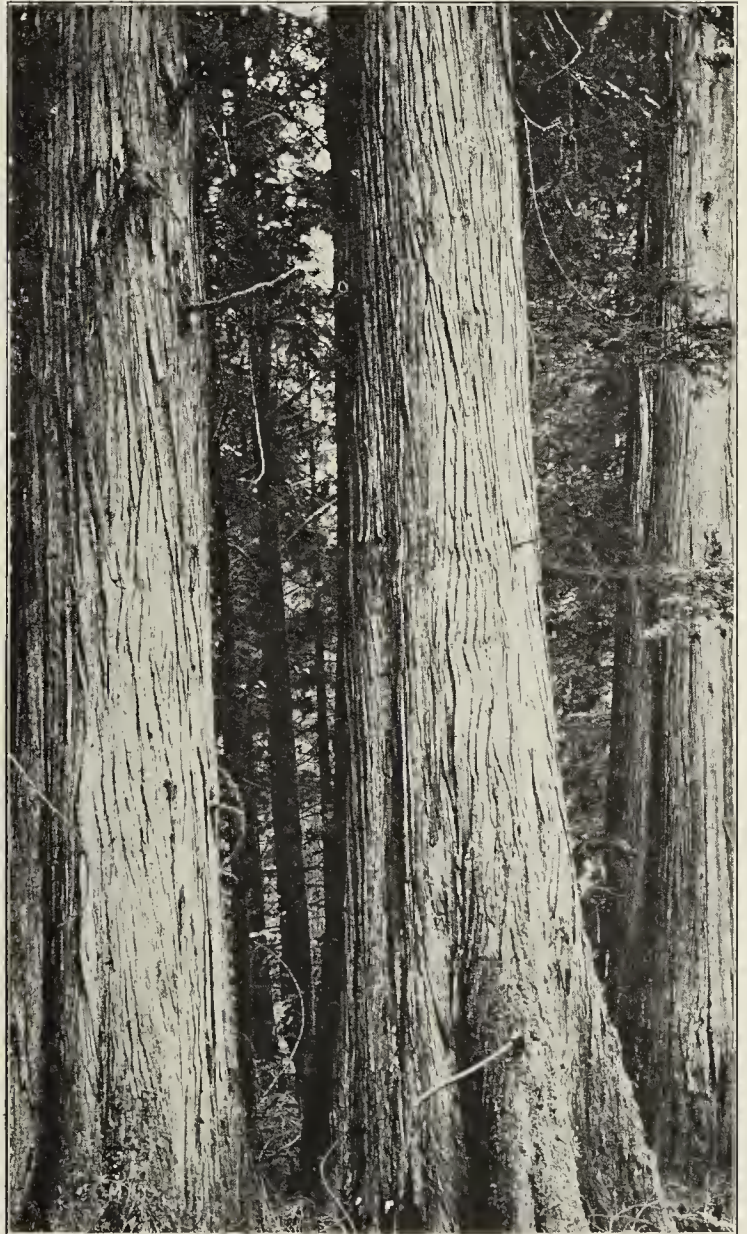
Spotted gum (*E. goniocalyx*) furnishes a heavy, hard, and durable timber, very similar to blue gum in appearance, for which it is often sold. It is commonly used for the same purposes as blue gum.

Yellow box (*E. melliodora*) timber is heavy, hard, and inlocked, and makes fairly durable piles and posts, as well as squared beams and stringers for bridges.

Messmate (*E. obliqua*) furnishes a good and durable building timber, being largely sawn by mills for weatherboards, studs, rafters, and joists. When it grows on dry schistose ridges it yields

durable timber for railway sleepers and fencing posts.

Stringybarks (*E. macrorrhyncha*, *E. capitellata*, *E. piperita*). The first of these is the common stringybark of the northern and north-eastern districts. It is sawn by mills into ordinary building timber, and is also largely split by settlers into posts and rails, and rough building material. The mountain stringybark is found in the Yarra watershed and other mountain ranges in the same district, where it attains a large size. It is sawn



RED CEDAR ON VANCOUVER ISLAND, BRITISH COLUMBIA



LOGGING ON A CANADIAN RIVER

Photo. C. P. Rly.

into building timber and pickets, and is split by settlers into fencing material. The white variety, the common stringybark of East Gippsland, is used for the same purposes.

Blackbutt, or common mountain ash (*E. amygdalina reganus*). This is the tallest tree of the Victorian forests, attaining a height of 300 to 350 ft. It is like English oak in appearance when properly seasoned and sawn into ordinary building material. Being free-grained, it is split into palings, shingles, rails, and mining laths, of which there is a large consumption.

Silvertop, or bastard ironbark (*E. sieberiana*, F. v. M.; *E. virgata* Sieb.), is also known in Victoria as Gippsland mountain ash, green-top, and, more rarely, as white ironbark. It furnishes sawn timber for ordinary building purposes of fair quality, and is used for fencing, rails, and rough construction by settlers.

Blackwood (*Acacia melanoxylon*). The height of this tree varies greatly, according to soil and climate; in some positions it reaches 60 to 80 ft., and in others 100 to 120 ft., with clear boles of 60 to 80 ft. to the first limb, and a diameter of 3 to 4 ft. It is strong and durable, and shrinks very little during seasoning, although it diminishes in weight. It is of a brownish colour, closely marked with streaks of reddish brown, and sometimes crossed by diagonal marks of a pale green colour. Figured blackwood has an even more beautiful wavy or mottled grain. Being hard and close-grained, the wood is greatly valued for articles of furniture, such as billiard-tables, secretares, chairs, casing of pianofortes and organs, and cabinet work generally; dadoes, panelling of railway carriages, boat building, picture frames, wheel naves, gun stocks, and walking sticks, and for nearly every purpose for which walnut is used.

Western Australia possesses many valuable forest trees, but

the jarrah and karri are pre-eminent in strength, durability, and general usefulness for building and construction. Jarrah (*E. marginata*) when mature attains a height of from 90 to 120 ft., the trunks being often 50 to 60 ft. to the first branch, and from 3 to 5 ft. in diameter. Taking the average growth of the tree, however, its trunk diameter ranges from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ ft. Under favourable conditions, it will attain a girth of about 6 ft. in from forty to fifty years. The wood,

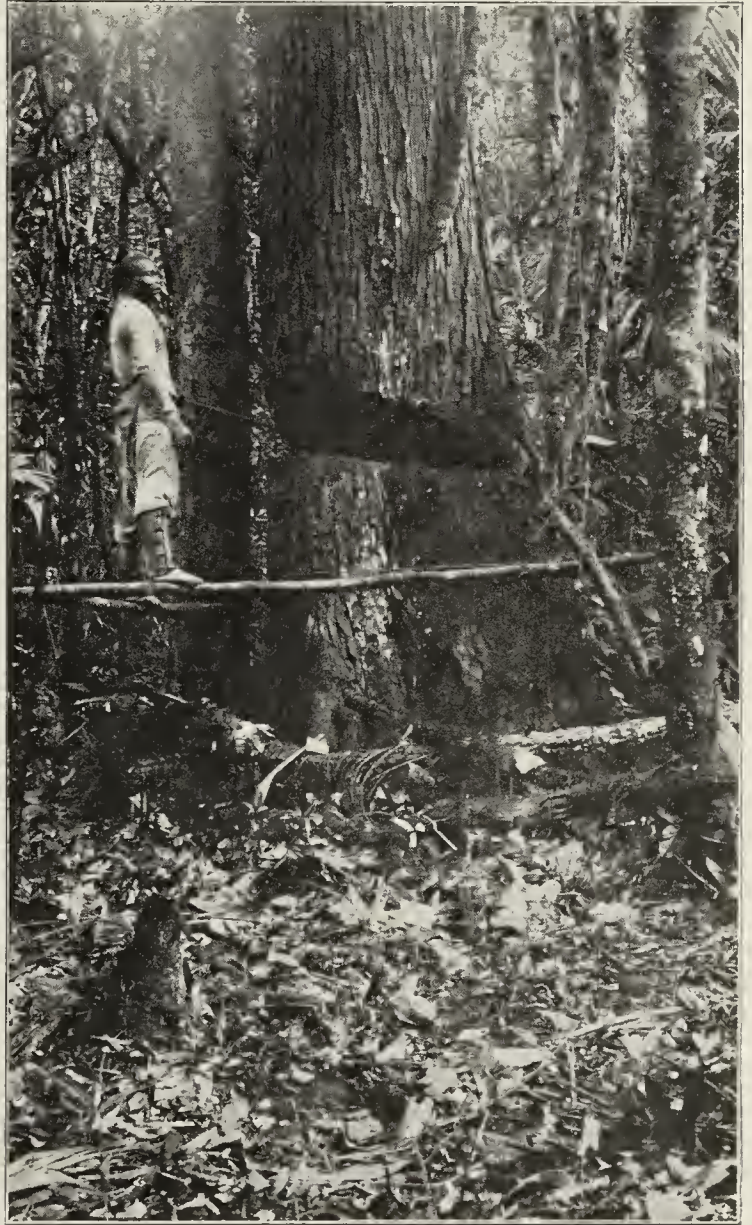


Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee
FELLING MAHOGANY IN BRITISH HONDURAS

which is of a red colour, and hard and dense in the grain, weighs about 70 lb. per cubic foot when freshly cut, and about 60 lb. when seasoned. It is largely used in some of the States for piles in jetty and bridge construction and for railway sleepers, while locally, in addition to being employed for the same purposes, it is a favourite material for boat-building, fencing and rough furniture. It is especially suited for paving blocks, and, in combination with karri, is exported in great quantities to Great Britain and other over-

The tuart (*E. gomphocephala*) attains a maximum height of 150 ft., and a girth of about 22 ft. As a rule, it is a wide-branched tree, with a stem of about 40 ft. up to the first limb. The material obtained from it is very hard, dense, and inlocked in grain, and it is usually considered the strongest and toughest timber tree growing in the forests of the State. It is much used for the framework of railway wagons, bridge supports, buffers, keelsons, shafts, and wheelwrights' work, and is in general demand for construction



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee
A LOG JAM ON A RIVER IN BRITISH HONDURAS

sea countries. The karri (*E. diversicolor*) is one of the largest timber trees of Australia, the average height being about 200 ft., with a clear stem of 120 to 150 ft. to the first branch, and a diameter of 3 to 4 ft. It is of a straight symmetrical habit, towering upright, and overtopping all the other eucalypts in its neighbourhood. It is largely used for bridge-decking, flooring, planking, spokes, felloes, and shafts, and it is also in high repute for street paving, being considered by many municipal surveyors as quite equal to jarrah for that purpose.

where great strength and hardness is necessary.

The red gum (*E. calophylla*) being a fine shade tree, and of very handsome appearance, is much valued for the shelter of cattle and sheep in the grazing districts. The usefulness of its timber is much impaired by the numerous gum veins which intersect it in every direction; but in short lengths it is employed for wheelwrights' work, agricultural implements, and farming purposes generally.

The wandoo (*E. redunca*) is the principal tree on the eastern slopes of the coastal



GIANT KAURI TREE, NEW ZEALAND

Photo, New Zealand Government

Darling Range, and attains a height of 60 to 80 ft., with a diameter of 1 to nearly 3 ft. Its timber is very hard, strong, and durable, and is commonly used for fencing, wheelwright's work, railway buffers, sleepers, and mining purposes.

The sandalwood (*Santalum cygnorum*) is one of the most valuable products of the Western Australian forests. The tree grows from 12 to 18 ft. in height, with stems of about 8 ft., and a diameter up to 8 or 10 in. It is rather widely distributed in the inland districts, with the exception of the south-western region, and flourishes on barren sandy soils.

CANADA.

The total area covered by forests, including the forested agricultural land, has been estimated at 1,151,454 square miles, of which about 17.3 per cent. carries mature, merchantable timber, and 9.7 per cent. carries immature, but nevertheless merchantable

per cent. of the standing timber and 9.5 per cent. of the sawn lumber.

Spruce is the most important wood in Canada for the production of lumber and pulp. Maple is used for firewood as well as for furniture, cars, agricultural implements, hardwood flooring, and distillation. Cedar is the most important wood in Canada for poles, fence posts, and rails, cross-ties (or railway sleepers and shingles). White pine and Douglas fir are important lumber species. Beech, poplar, and jack pine are used in the largest quantities for firewood. Red pine, hemlock, and tamarack are lumber woods of less importance. Balsam fir is an important pulpwood. Yellow pine grows in the interior of British Columbia and covers a large area in the dry belt. Elm is an important cooper-age wood, together with oak, ash, and basswood.

The following is a list of the principal forest trees in order of commercial importance in Canada :—

ONTARIO AND QUEBEC.		NORTH-WEST PROVINCES AND ROCKY MOUNTAINS.	
Popular Name.	Botanical Name.	Popular Name.	Botanical Name.
White Spruce -	<i>Picea canadensis</i>	White Spruce -	<i>Picea canadensis</i>
White Pine -	<i>Pinus strobus</i>	*Aspen -	<i>Populus tremuloides</i>
Balsam Fir -	<i>Abies balsamea</i>	*Balm Poplar -	<i>Populus balsamifera</i>
Hemlock -	<i>Tsuga canadensis</i>	Jack Pine -	<i>Pinus divaricata</i>
*Birch -	<i>Betula lutea, alba var. papyrifera</i>	Black Spruce -	<i>Picea mariana</i>
Red Pine -	<i>Pinus resinosa</i>	Tamarack -	<i>Larix americana</i>
Cedar -	<i>Thuja occidentalis</i>	*White Birch -	<i>Betula alba, var. papyrifera</i>
Tamarack -	<i>Larix americana</i>	Lodgepole Pine	<i>Pinus Murrayana</i>
*Maple -	<i>Acer saccharum, saccharinum, rubrum</i>	Alpine Fir -	<i>Abies lasiocarpa</i>
*Basswood -	<i>Tilia americana</i>	Alpine Larch -	<i>Larix lyalli</i>
Jack Pine -	<i>Pinus divaricata</i>	BRITISH COLUMBIA.	
*Elm -	<i>Ulmus americana</i>		
*Ash -	<i>Fraxinus americana, nigra</i>	Douglas Fir -	<i>Pseudo-Tsuga mucronata</i>
*Oak -	<i>Quercus alba, rubra</i>	Giant Cedar -	<i>Thuja plicata</i>
*Poplar -	<i>Populus balsamifera, tremuloides</i>	Wes. Hemlock -	<i>Tsuga heterophylla</i>
*Beech -	<i>Fagus atropinicea</i>	Sitka Spruce -	<i>Picea sitchensis</i>
		Engelman Spruce	<i>Picea Englemanni</i>
		Alpine Fir -	<i>Abies lasiocarpa, amabilis</i>
		Bull Pine -	<i>Pinus ponderosa</i>
		Western Larch	<i>Larix occidentalis</i>
		Lodgepole Pine	<i>Pinus Murrayana</i>

NOTE.—Trees marked with an asterisk (*) are hardwood ; all the others are soft wood.

forest products. Represented in the three great forest divisions of Canada are approximately 160 different species of plants reaching tree size. Thirty-one of these species are coniferous, the wood of which forms 80

NEW ZEALAND.

The Dominion possesses a large variety of trees in its native forests, there being no fewer than eighty-six different species known to botanists. The majority of these are,



Photos by kind permission of the Agent-General for Newfoundland

NEWFOUNDLAND PAPER PULP INDUSTRY

- (1) Newfoundland Paper Mills (2) Pressing Wood Pulp (3) Gigantic rolls of News-paper

unfortunately, useless for commercial purposes to any great extent, through various causes, and, as a matter of fact, the following trees are practically the staple supply of the timber trade.*

Kauri (*Abalhis australis*). Grows only in the Auckland District. The girth of marketable trees ranges from 4 ft. to 30 ft., and sometimes more, the general average being about 12 ft., and the contents about 3,000 ft. There is no pine in the world superior for all-round use. It is used for joinery, furniture making, house-building, ship, yacht, and boat building, wharves, bridges, railway and other work; but is well adapted for high-class joinery, and internal fittings and carvings. When converted into veneers, it is highly prized. Unfortunately, it takes from 600 to 3,600 years to attain its full size, and as it is very inflammable, its growth and preservation is a matter of considerable difficulty.

Totara is found throughout the whole of New Zealand, except in the Nelson District, though the bulk of the supply is in Wellington, Auckland, Hawkes' Bay, and Westland. It is very durable, and of all New Zealand timbers it is the best for resisting the ravages of the teredo, and, consequently, has been largely used in the construction of wharves and bridges. It also lasts well in contact with the ground, and is utilised largely for general building and joinery purposes, telegraph posts, railway sleepers and fencing posts. The mottled variety is much sought after for panels, furniture and inlaying.

Rimu, or Red Pine. This is the principal timber in the New Zealand forests, and is extensively used for building and joinery. The figured variety is often beautifully grained, and is much in demand for furniture. It is a most valuable wood, owing to its wide adaptability and comparative cheapness. Though not equal to totara or kauri, yet, owing to its greater cheapness, it is more largely used.

Kahikatea, or White Pine. This timber is also in great demand throughout the whole of the Dominion. It is found chiefly on low-lying or swampy land, and grows in all parts of the country. Its lasting qualities vary, but, unfortunately, the dry rot and borer find it a comparatively easy prey, and, therefore, it is not much use for general building purposes. Its greatest use is for making

butter boxes, for which purpose no substitute has yet been found, and large quantities are exported to Australia for this purpose.

The next timber in importance is matai, or black pine, which is a very heavy but short-grained timber. It is used for building purposes, and especially for weatherboards and flooring; also for small bridges and fencing purposes. It is second only to totara for durability, but is inclined to brittleness. It is found all over the Dominion in fairly large quantities.

The only other timbers in New Zealand which are used to any extent for general purposes are :—

Puriri, a very hard and tough wood, which makes good sleepers and posts, and is very durable. It is largely used for railway works, bridge stringers and truck frames. In weight, colour and texture it somewhat resembles rosewood, but the figured varieties are marked like walnut. It is also largely used as veneers.

Rata, which is mostly used for firewood, is a hard, heavy, tough, and very strong wood, mostly straight-grained, and used to a limited extent by wheelwrights, and as arms for telegraph posts.

The various "Birches" (or "Beeches," as they should be designated) grow plentifully all over the Dominion, and are being used for railway sleepers very extensively in the Wellington District.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

Very large areas in Newfoundland are forest-covered, but the exact mileage has not yet been definitely ascertained, the principal varieties of timber being white pine, white and black spruce, fir, tamarack, and yellow and white birch.

Newfoundland presents unrivalled facilities for the prosecution of pulp and paper manufacture. There are immense areas covered with spruce and fir, easily accessible and generally well-watered. The spruce timber of this Dominion is said to yield more pulp per cord than the Canadian spruce. Owing to the physical features of the country, the large rainfall and small evaporation, the minimum flow of all the streams is much larger in Newfoundland than in the northern New England States. Many water powers ranging from 1,000 to 40,000 h.p. are at present lying idle.

* From official information by the Under-Secretary for Lands.

At Grand Falls the Harnsworth ("Daily Mail") Mills manufacture immense quantities of pulp and paper, and a small town has been laid out on the most modern lines. A few miles distant the Albert Reed Company has established a similar plant. On the South coast a large area has been acquired by Mr. W. R. Hearst, the American newspaper proprietor; and at Grand Lake, on the Gander River, the Reid Newfoundland Company possess forest regions which, for paper and pulp making, are considered to be among the most valuable in Newfoundland.

SOUTHERN RHODESIA.

The forest growth of Southern Rhodesia consists of two main types: (a) high or close-type evergreen forests; (b) deciduous Savannah forest.

Both naturally fall into sub-types, the former into two and the latter into five. The high or close-type forests are confined to the narrow mountain range of the Eastern Border, where the annual precipitation is highest.

Type 1a.—Consists of evergreen forests, containing trees up to 200 feet high, with *Khaya Nyasica* as the dominant tree. It covers a very small area, being confined to the Chirinda Mountain in the Melssetter district.

Type 2a.—Consists of evergreen forests of the upper mountain slopes, containing trees up to 80 feet in height, with *Cussonia umbellifera* as the dominant tree. It is found in patches chiefly in the deep gullies and rainy declivities on the eastern side of the mountains forming the Eastern Border.

Savannah Forest.—Is the type which predominates in the Colony. It consists of trees and shrubs intermingled with various species of herbage, the whole having a park-like appearance. During the dry winter season the majority of the trees and shrubs are leafless, the length of the dormant period depending largely on the quantity of summer precipitation. The trees as a rule are of small dimensions with large spreading crowns, and vary in height according to the locality and edaphic conditions. The boles are

usually short, having serviceable lengths averaging about 10 feet. The dominant trees belong to the order *Leguminosae*. When felled, the majority of the species coppice freely, and soon re-establish themselves over areas that have been clear-cut. Where edaphic conditions are more favourable, the trees close in, have larger boles and approximate close-type forest; they are, however, usually widely spaced, and in some parts where the soil is shallow and the rainfall low, shrub growth replaces trees.

The five sub-types of Savannah forest form more or less natural groups.

Sub-type 1b.—Is confined to the Kalahari sand belts in the north-west portions of the Colony, having as the dominant trees the Rhodesian teak (*Baikiaea plurijuga*) and the Rhodesian mahogany (*Copaifera coleosperma*).

Sub-type 2b.—Covers large areas, usually on the lower slopes and valley bottoms of the hotter parts of the Colony. The dominant tree is the mopani (*Copaifera mopane*).

Sub-type 3b.—Consists of a long belt of *Copaifera gorskiana*, situated in the Zambesi Valley.

Sub-type 4b.—Consists mostly of species of acacias. Typical examples occur on the shallow soils in the neighbourhood of Bula-wayo.

Sub-type 5b.—This covers the greater part of the plateaux and hills in Mashonaland, irrespective of geological formation. The dominant tree is m'sasa (*Brachystegia Randii*).

The line of demarcation separating the sub-types of Savannah forest is not always distinct. Certain species are found scattered in the various sub-types, notably the mashuma (*Diospyros mespiliformis*), which particularly favours termite mounds. In addition, there is a stream-bank flora which has characteristics of its own and, in different parts of the Colony, has different constituent members.

There are approximately one thousand species of trees and shrubs found in the Colony. Many of the trees produce valuable timbers, but some are liable to attacks by termites and borers, and for that reason require preservative treatment.

GIBRALTAR

THIS impregnable rock-fortress, guarding the western approach to the Mediterranean, is, undoubtedly, the most important strategic post owned by Great Britain on the highways of the sea. Although geographically it is not an island, being joined to Spain by a narrow neck of land, it is *politically*, as the low-lying sandy country of the connecting isthmus is considered *neutral ground*; and the rock, which is about 3 miles in length, $\frac{3}{4}$ mile in breadth, and nearly 1,400 ft. high, juts out into the sea in the form of a lofty promontory. On the west is the bay which fronts the town of Gibraltar, and on the south and east lies the Mediterranean. It is divided from Morocco (North Africa) by a narrow strait, which varies in width from 15 miles.

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE ROCK.

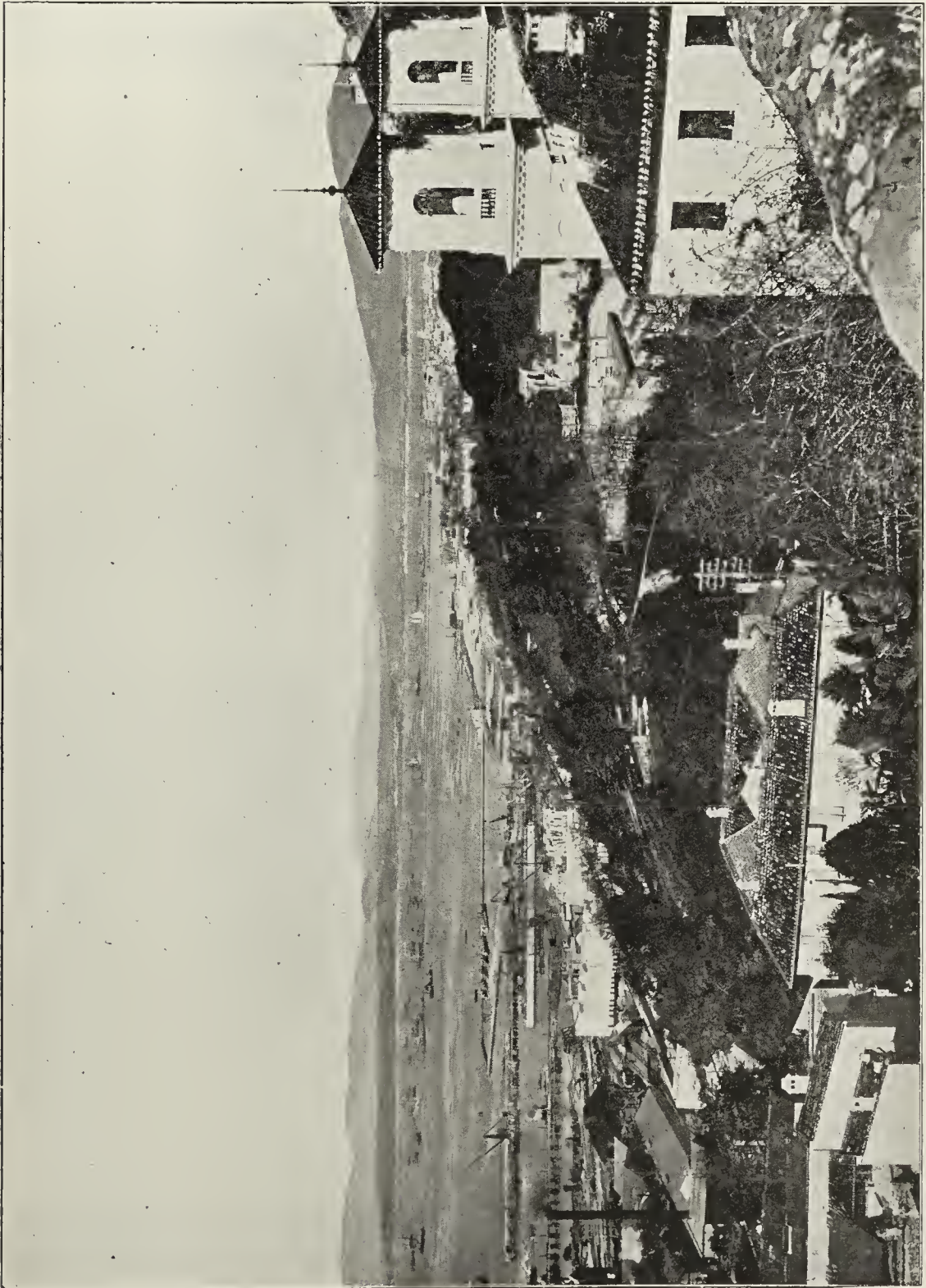
Although Gibraltar was known to the Greeks as Calpe, one of the *Pillars of Hercules*, it was not until the great Saracen leader Tarik Ibn Zeiad, perceiving its strategic importance, established there, in 710, a fortified base. The Moors held it for many centuries, but the rising power of Spain weakened their hold, and it was eventually taken in 1462.

The efforts of the Moors to recapture the rock, although continued for many years, proved unavailing, and extensive defence works were erected which caused it, even in the seventeenth century, to be considered impregnable. Nevertheless, it fell after a sustained bombardment by the combined English and Dutch Fleets under Sir George Rooke and Prince George of Darmstadt in 1704; and nine years later was ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht.

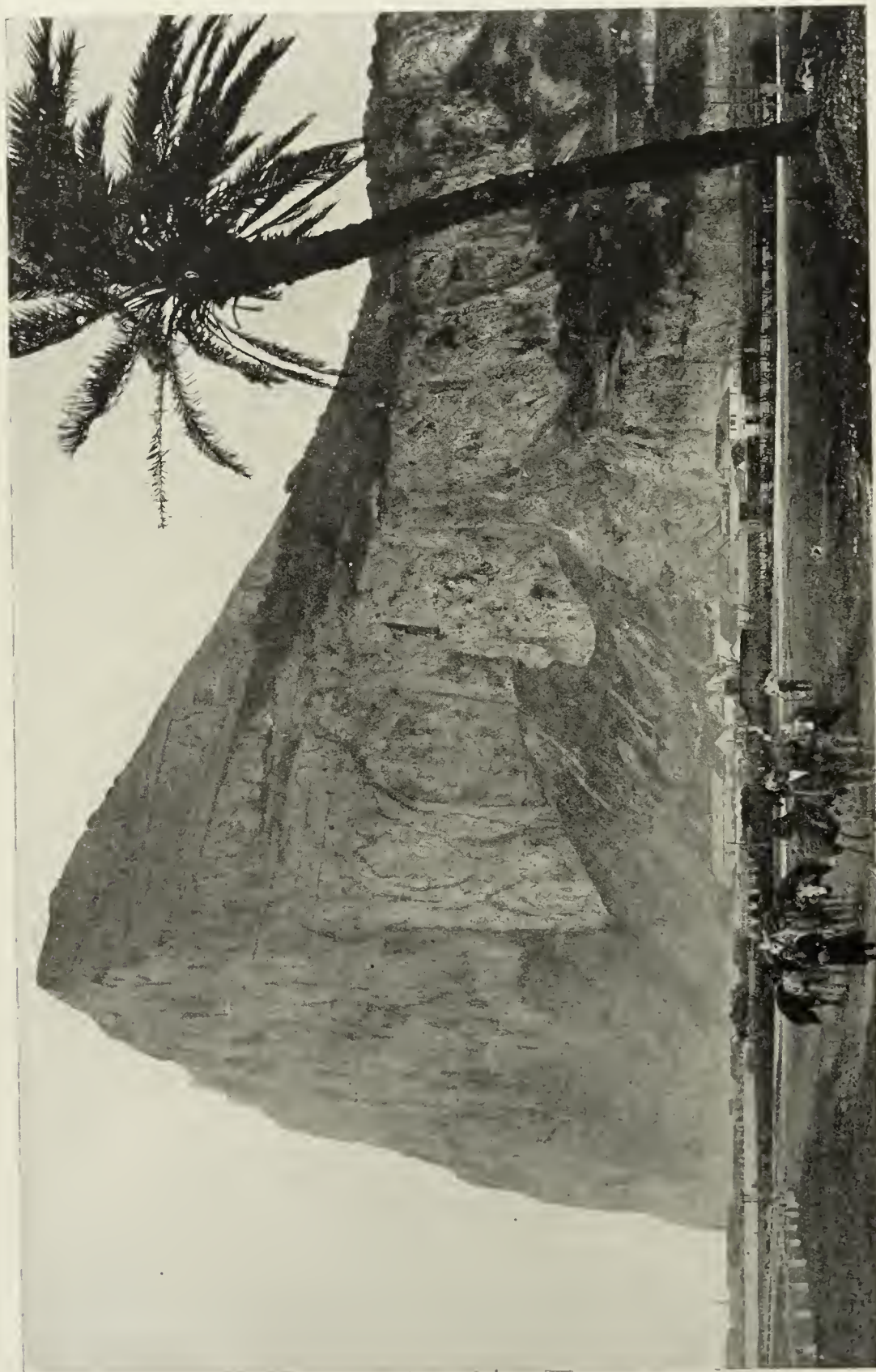
Many and vigorous have been the efforts of France and Spain to retake Gibraltar. In the year following its capture by the combined English and Dutch fleets it was bombarded and assaulted without avail, and again in 1727 it was closely besieged by the Spaniards; when, although the weak garrison was desperately in want of provisions, and the assaults were pressed with vigour, it yielded not, and was eventually relieved by a fleet of eleven sail.

At the time when Great Britain was hard pressed by the revolt in the American colonies, and engaged also in a naval war with France, a last great effort was made by Spain to regain the Rock. The siege began in 1779, and, notwithstanding the defeat of the Spanish Fleet by Admiral Rodney off Cape St. Vincent in 1780, it was not raised until 1782, in the same year as Rodney's great victory off Dominica in the West Indies. The heroic garrison, under General Elliot (afterwards Lord Heathfield) successfully held out for nearly four years against one of the longest and most vigorous sieges known in history.

Throughout the stormy times which followed, even in the days of England's struggle with Napoleon, Gibraltar was never properly besieged, although on many occasions it has been blockaded from the land side. The rise of Britain's sea power under the "Great Admirals" made an effective investment impossible, and this "Key to the Mediterranean," with all the strategic advantages which its possession carries, has never, since its capture in 1704, been wrested from the British.



GENERAL VIEW OVER GIBRALTAR
The Spanish Coast can be seen in the distance



VIEW OF GIBRALTAR FROM THE LAND

Photo, courtesy Canadian Pacific Cruise Dept.

GIBRALTAR TO-DAY.

Facing the neutral ground, the bay and Spain, the sides of the famous Rock are almost perpendicular, and galleries and caverns with gun embrasures every few yards have been cut in the solid stone ; some of these broad terraces extend for several miles. The east side, facing the Mediterranean, is a precipice many hundred feet deep ; while the south front is almost as inaccessible. The west side, facing the entrance to the Strait is, however, less pre-

The shipping which annually enters and clears amounts to six million tons, of which five million tons is British.*

The revenue, which is mostly derived from port dues, the rent of Crown estates, and duties on wine, spirits, beer and tobacco, averages £160,000 a year, and the expenditure £150,000, while the civil population numbers about 16,000, most of whom live in the town which lies on the west side near Europa Point. It has one main, well-paved and lighted thoroughfare, which contains several good shops.



Photo by kind permission of the Ellerman Lines

GIBRALTAR FROM THE SEA

cipitous, and slopes down to the sea, but here are tiers of batteries mounting powerful guns.

An extensive naval harbour, enclosing nearly 400 acres, has been constructed at a cost of several millions sterling. It includes besides docks capable of taking the largest battleship of the British Navy, and all other necessary appliances for repairing and supplying the war needs of a large fleet, a commercial harbour and coaling station, which now give to Gibraltar an ever-increasing commercial activity, as it is a free port and the depôt for the maritime trade of Morocco.

The most interesting places, other than the fortifications, are the Gardens, Government House, Naval House, the Barracks, the Cathedral, the old Moorish Castle, Rosia Bay, and the Theatre. The climate is healthy, although hot during the summer months. Among the luxuriant vegetation on what is known as the "Western Slopes," are to be seen the only wild monkeys now left in Europe. The town itself is by no means attractive, but, in and around Waterport Street, there are shops selling the lace, curios and other wares of Spain and North Africa.

* The Governor of Gibraltar is also Commander-in-Chief, and exercises full military and legislative powers.

Gibraltar, which is the headquarters of the Atlantic Fleet, has a permanent garrison of between 4,000 and 5,000 men. The Rock is honeycombed with galleries and subterranean vaults, in which are stored, ready for emergencies, provisions and ammunition sufficient to last through a close siege or blockade of very many months, and the water supply is derived from two sources, the rainfall and artesian wells.

It would be impolitic and unnecessary to detail here the numerous batteries on this famous rock. Several hundred guns, many

of which are of the highest power, dominate the neutral ground, the entrance to the Mediterranean and the Strait ; searchlights of wide range are available for night operations, and a full supply of submarine mining requisites, as well as vast naval stores, are always to hand. A submarine torpedo-boat flotilla and an air squadron have also been added to the defences of Gibraltar, which appears to be as nearly impregnable as it is possible to make any place in face of the terrific gunfire of modern warships.



GOVERNMENT

ALTHOUGH the superficial area of the earth is estimated to be 196,550,000 square miles, only 55,500,000 of these miles are composed of land ; the remainder being formed by the oceans, seas and waterways. There are six great nations which have jurisdiction over the largest portion of the earth's surface. First comes the British Empire, with 14,220,000 square miles, or just over a quarter of the whole land surface of the world. Then Russia (European and Asiatic), with 8,400,000 square miles, France with 4,336,000, China with 4,300,000, the United States with insular jurisdiction over 3,750,000 square miles, and Brazil with 3,220,000 square miles.

The population of the world is approximately 1,657,100,000, of which number about 463,000,000, or just over one-fourth, reside within the confines of the British Empire. These hundreds of millions of British subjects are, however, not all of one colour, race, language or religion. About 70,000,000 are white and speak English, 340,000,000 are natives of India, Ceylon and the adjacent islands, over 40,000,000 are black and of various negroid races, 6,000,000 are Arabs, 5,500,000 are Malays, 1,000,000 are Chinese, and another 1,000,000 Polynesians.

By far the largest number of all these heterogeneous peoples do not speak English. Their language is one or other of the hundreds of dialects current within the Great Commonwealth. In religion—and the modes of life and thought engendered by it—there is also great diversity. Hundreds of different creeds, or beliefs, form acknowledged or unacknowledged branches of eight or nine religious

doctrines. There are in the Empire about 220,000,000 Hindus, 104,000,000 Mohammedans, 81,000,000 Christians, 13,000,000 Buddhists, 12,000,000 Animists, 4,000,000 Sikhs, Jains, Parsees and other minor Asiatic creeds, 750,000 Jews, about 11,000,000 idol and sun worshippers, and 17,250,000 whose religious beliefs are unknown.

These, then, are the lands and peoples, the material of which the world-wide British Empire is made. Rome, at the height of its power, claimed the allegiance of only a fraction of the territory and races encompassed by this colossus of the Twentieth Century.

Government of the Empire

So complicated and full of anomalies is the administration of this vast Commonwealth of Nations that it defies description under any single system. It is rather a growth, and embodies the wisdom and experience of ages and of all races and degrees of civilisation, than the outcome of any preconceived theory carried into masterly effect. Yet, of its efficiency as a machine and of the smooth working of the component parts, the absence of great civil unrest, the voluntary cohesion of the outlying units to the Motherland, the preservation of peace and orderly government among heterogeneous races without the undue employment of military force, the religious toleration, the absence of all forms of slavery or subjection, and the moderate *Imperial* taxation (except in the heart of the Empire), combined with the wonderful agricultural, industrial, commercial, and general prosperity over so long

a period, are proof positive and beyond all dispute. It is these facts which cause even the cleverest statesmen to hesitate before propounding any drastic change in the constitution and government of this great Empire. Its organisation is so loose that the greatest possible freedom of thought, whether good or bad, is allowed to all political parties in every centre of administrative power, and there is, therefore, not the slightest need or warrant for destructive action. The fate of over a quarter of the world and of civilisation generally, depends upon its maintenance.

To enable a comprehensive and lucid study of this enormously powerful and complicated governmental system—or lack of system—to be made, it is necessary to begin with the Constitution of the Empire, and follow closely its various applications and ramifications in the more distant parts, as well as among native races.

The Constitution of the British Empire is an unwritten code which recognises many general principles, chief among which are, perhaps, taxation only with the consent of the people, religious and civil liberty, a limited monarchy, the fair administration of justice, and the mutual assistance of all parts in the defence of the whole or any unit thereof.

H.M. THE KING.

The title of the Sovereign of the Empire is : His Most Excellent Majesty GEORGE THE FIFTH, by the Grace of God, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain, Ireland and the British Dominions beyond the Seas, King, Defender of the Faith, Emperor of India.

It is a limited hereditary monarchy, and the King-Emperor has the right to veto Bills passed by both Houses of Parliament of the United Kingdom, and the same power is vested by the King in the Governors-General of the Dominions and Colonies and in the Viceroy of India. This power of veto is in practice confined to emergencies, and does not prevent the same Bill being brought up again at a future date. It is really a suspension of the operations of the Bill. The King may summon or prorogue Parliament, and may dissolve the House of Commons. In him is vested the prerogative of mercy in cases of offences against the laws of the Empire. In all political matters the King advises or acts as a neutral, who has no

politics, but is charged with the high and often difficult duty of watching over the Imperial interests as a whole.

Nearly all these powers are vested in the Viceroys, Governors-General, and Governors of the Indian Empire and of British Dominions beyond the Seas, *acting for and in the name of the King-Emperor*. It is the King alone who can declare war, and His Majesty is the head of the armed forces of the Empire. He is the fountain of all titles, honours, and distinctions; and all Ministers and *commissioned* officers and officials, hold office at his pleasure.

These are some of the actual powers of the Sovereign, but in practice nearly all of them are used by the King-Emperor (Viceroys or Governors) only on the advice of his Ministers or the Privy Council. It being in his name that all laws are made and enforced and all Imperial acts done, it is but right that in him should be vested the power of "yea or nay." But the magnitude of the responsibilities attaching to his hereditary office and the diverse and often technical character of the questions submitted to him, require for their final solution the expert aid of the King's Advisers—composed of Ministers of State, Privy Councillors of the Empire, and others.

THE PRIVY COUNCIL.

This is a body of expert advisers drawn from the most competent authorities on administration, law, finance, religion, Colonial and Indian affairs, and warfare, pledged to secrecy, and to give true and faithful service and advice when called upon by the King. It is, of course, entirely non-partisan. Members are entitled to the use of the prefix "Right Honourable." There is a "Judicial Committee of the Privy Council" to which certain legal appeals can be made from the Supreme Courts of the Empire, and other standing and temporary committees formed to deal with special matters.

This Council is of ancient origin. In the days of Alfred the Great, A.D. 895, a body, composed of twelve members, was first formed to advise the King. It also performed the duties now confined to the Cabinet. In later years the Privy Council was composed of those who were constantly in attendance on the Kings of England during the turbulent Middle Ages. Becoming unwieldy, however, it was reconstituted in

1679. Members of the Cabinet must now be sworn of the Privy Council. The Lord President is the Fifth Great Officer of State. This Council acts in such emergencies as the demise of the Crown, the declaration of war, political deadlock, and in matters referred from the Dominions and Colonies.

THE PARLIAMENT OF GREAT BRITAIN.

The Legislature of Great Britain comprises (1) the House of Lords, and (2) the House of Commons. The former consists of Peers, some of whom hold their seats by hereditary right, others by creation by the King. Also sitting in the House of Lords are English Bishops, Irish Peers elected for life, and Scottish Peers elected for the duration of Parliament. This House can initiate a Bill, which must then pass the House of Commons and finally receive the Royal Assent. It can alter and return a Bill passed by the House of Commons, and can finally delay the passing of a Bill into law for a period of two years, when, if it is again passed by the House of Commons, it becomes law on receiving the Royal Assent. Money Bills must, however, be passed unamended within a month of being sent from the House of Commons. Any Bill designed to increase the maximum duration of Parliament can, however, be rejected by the House of Lords. Legal appeal can be made to the House of Lords in certain instances of civil action. The House of Lords is composed of 680 members, but the voting strength seldom exceeds 660.

The House of Commons is a body of elected representatives of the people of Great Britain and Northern Ireland. There are 615 members, representing county, borough and University constituencies. In 1922 the number of Members was reduced from 707 to 615 by the decrease of Irish representation from 105 to 13. This occurred through the granting of Dominion status to the Irish Free State. Under the Representation of the People Acts of 1918 and 1929, considerably over one-third (men and women) of the entire population are entitled to the vote. Women are represented in the House of Commons.

Members are divided into political groups, known as Parties, the strongest of which

holds power, whether by virtue of its own strength in numbers or by temporary arrangement with another *party*. The next most powerful party is known officially as the "Opposition." A defeat of the party in power on a *vote of censure, a declaration of want of confidence, or by a vote disapproving of some act of the Government*, usually entails the resignation of the Ministry, which is drawn from the strongest party, and an appeal to the country.

This House can (and in practice generally does) initiate legislation of all kinds. On passing this assembly, Bills are *sent to* the House of Lords to be passed, altered and returned, or delayed in operation for two years, after which they are submitted for the Royal Assent, which is then seldom refused, unless they be of a revolutionary or disruptive character. Money Bills must be passed unamended by the House of Lords within one month of being sent up; if not so passed they become law upon receiving the Royal Assent. Members of the House of Commons receive a stipend at the rate of £400 per annum, and travelling facilities to and from their constituencies.

THE MINISTRY.

This includes Members of the Cabinet and others who have no seat in the Cabinet. Ministers are drawn from the leading politicians of the party in power.*

The Ministry consists of the following :—

THE CABINET.			
<i>Title.</i>			<i>Salary.</i>
Prime Minister	-	-	- Unpaid
Lord Privy Seal	-	-	- Unpaid
Lord President of the Council	-	-	- £2,000
Lord High Chancellor	-	-	- £10,000
Chancellor of the Exchequer	-	-	- 5,000
First Lord of the Treasury	-	-	- 5,000
Secretaries of State—			
Home Affairs	-	-	- 5,000
Foreign Affairs	-	-	- 5,000
Dominions and Colonies	-	-	- 5,000
War	-	-	- 5,000
India	-	-	- 5,000
Scotland	-	-	- 2,500
Air	-	-	- 3,000
First Lord of the Admiralty	-	-	- 4,500
President of the Board of Trade	-	-	- 5,000
Minister of Health	-	-	- 5,000
President of the Board of Education	-	-	- 2,000
Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries	-	-	- 2,000
Minister of Labour	-	-	- 2,000
Attorney-General	-	-	- 7,000
First Commissioner of Public Works	-	-	- 2,000
Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster	-	-	- 2,000

* In 1930 the question of increasing the salary of certain Ministers was introduced by the Prime Minister.

NOT IN THE CABINET.

Minister of Pensions	-	-	£2,000
Solicitor-General (and fees)	-	-	6,000
Postmaster-General	-	-	2,500
Minister of Transport	-	-	2,000
Paymaster-General	-	-	Unpaid
Civil Lord of the Admiralty	-	-	1,000
Treasury—			
Junior Lords	-	(each)	1,000
Financial Secretary	-	-	2,000
Parliamentary Secretary	-	-	1,000
Under Secretaries of State—			
Air Ministry	-	-	1,500
Colonial Office	-	-	1,500
Dominion Affairs	-	-	1,500
Foreign Affairs (two)	-	-	1,500
Home Office	-	-	1,500
India Office	-	-	1,500
War Office	-	-	1,500
War Office (Financial)	-	-	1,500
Parliamentary Secretaries—			
Board of Admiralty	-	-	1,500
Ministry of Agriculture	-	-	1,200
Board of Education	-	-	1,200
Ministry of Health	-	-	1,500
Ministry of Labour	-	-	1,200
Board of Trade (two)	-	-	1,500
War Office	-	-	1,500
Charity Commissioner	-	-	Unpaid

SCOTLAND.

Secretary (in the Cabinet)	-	-	£2,500
Under Secretary for Health	-	-	1,200
Lord Advocate	-	-	5,000
Solicitor-General	-	-	2,000

MINISTERS OF THE ROYAL HOUSEHOLD.

*Lord Steward	-	-	£2,000
Treasurer	-	-	700
Comptroller	-	-	700
*Lord Chamberlain	-	-	2,000
Vice-Chamberlain	-	-	700
*Lords-in-Waiting (six)	-	-	600
Captain, Gentleman-at-Arms	-	-	700
Captain, Yeoman of the Guard	-	-	700
*Master of the Horse	-	-	2,500

* Since 1924 these appointments have become entirely non-political, and consequently will not change with the Government.

The above officials vacate office each time the Government changes.

THE EXECUTIVE.

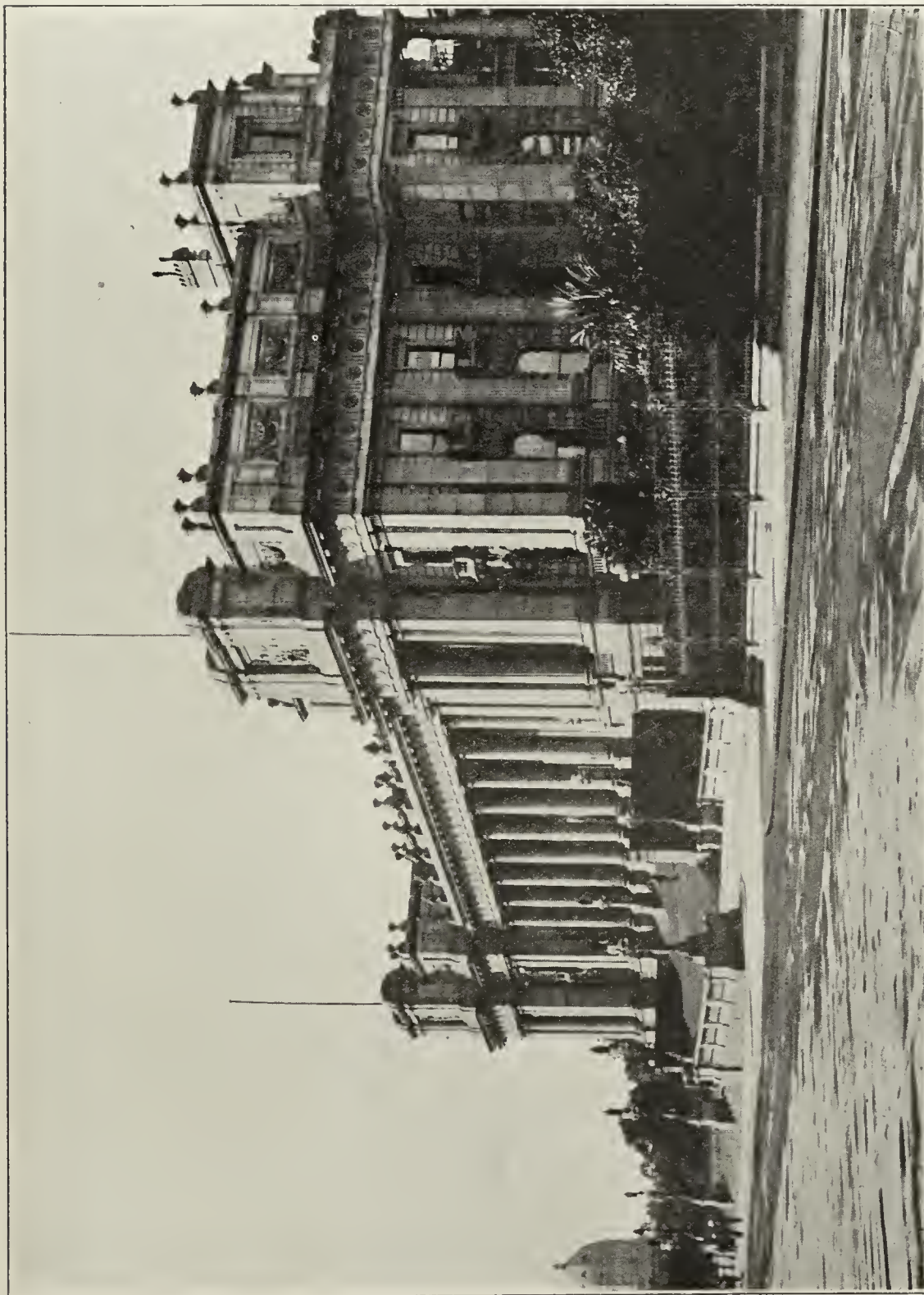
The King in Council is the head of the Executive. Ministers hold office at the King's pleasure, and may be dismissed at any time. It is the Crown who makes war and peace, increases the Peccage, issues Charters, and is the head of the Navy, Army and Air Force. Honour, office, and justice

are given, held, and administered at the King's pleasure. The actual Executive is, however, the Ministry and the permanent officials of the Administrative systems. The King and the Parliament of Great Britain have a certain voice in the administration of all Dominions (including India), Colonies, and Dependencies included in the British and Indian Empires. Foreign affairs are almost entirely in the hands of the Imperial Government, although the Colonial Premiers are always consulted on matters of high policy and in affairs directly or indirectly affecting the interests of their respective Dominions. (See *Imperial Conferences*.)

Every British Dominion is subject to the legislation of the British Parliament, except as regards taxation. Acts of the British Parliament do not affect any Colony unless it is expressly mentioned. In the event of any Colonial Legislature enacting a law contrary (or distasteful) to any Imperial law affecting that Colony, it is void in so far as it contravenes the Imperial law. Colonial Legislatures can be controlled: (a) by the Governor refusing assent to a measure passed; (b) by the reference of a measure for Royal Assent and its refusal; (c) by the suspension of a measure pending Royal Assent or refusal. In practice, however, no obstacle is ever placed in the way of legislation in a Self-governing Dominion, and is never likely to be unless such legislation affected other portions of the Empire or was of a disruptive character.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

In Great Britain the central authorities in all matters of local administration are the Home Office and the Ministry of Health, at the head of which are Ministers and Under-Secretaries. It is to the latter Government Department that all local bodies look for advice and assistance. Local authorities administer the poor laws, public libraries, public health, the police, the control of the sale of intoxicating liquors, licences of various kinds, the provision of lunatic asylums, and they *carry into effect* the laws relating to public elementary and other schools. In Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Wales there are very similar elaborate systems of local government.



Photo, Australian Government

THE OLD FEDERAL (NOW STATE) PARLIAMENT HOUSE, MELBOURNE, VICTORIA, AUSTRALIA

The new Parliament Buildings are at the recently constructed Federal Capital of Canberra

Dominion and Colonial Government

The oversea Dominions and Colonies of the Empire may be divided into nine classes, according to the systems of government in vogue. These political divisions are as follows :—

1. The Indian Empire (*see* later pages of this article).

2. The Dominions having responsible Government; in which all the administrative departments are supervised and controlled by political leaders responsible to the elected Legislature, but holding office under the Crown. In this category are Australia, Canada, Newfoundland, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, Northern Ireland, the Irish Free State, and Southern Rhodesia.

3. The Colonies in which Government is carried on by a Legislative Assembly partly or wholly elected, and an Executive Council nominated directly or indirectly by the Crown. In this category comes the Bahamas, Bermuda, Barbados, Jamaica, Leeward Islands, Seychelles, British Guiana, British Honduras, Mauritius, Cyprus, Malta, and Kenya.

4. The Colonies wherein the Government is carried on by a Governor with an Executive and a *Legislative Council*, both nominated by the Crown. This system is in vogue in the Straits Settlements, Hong-Kong, Papua, Falkland Islands, Fiji, Nyasaland, Trinidad, Sierra Leone, Gold Coast, Gambia, and some of the West Indian Islands.

5. The Colonies in which the legislative and executive power is vested in the Governor alone. Among the Colonies so governed are Uganda, Somaliland, and St. Helena.

6. The Protectorates in which British Authority is confined to the appointment of an "Adviser" or other similar official, and the responsibility is mainly in relation to defence against foreign aggression, civil peace, foreign affairs, and financial solvency. In this category may be included some of the Malay States, some Indian States, and various islands.

7. Those British spheres in which the administrative control is exercised by a "Chartered Company," supervised by the British Colonial Office. In this list there is now only one, British North Borneo.

8. The Mandatory Protectorates, administered by Great Britain, or one of the Self-governing Dominions, under a Mandate from the League of Nations (*q.v.*).

9. Independent States in permanent alliance with the British Empire. In this category come Egypt and several Indian States. Their position is a somewhat curious one, being independent in all matters except the making of treaties with foreign Powers and certain other important affairs, such as Defence.

There are also "Spheres of Influence," or areas in which British interests are important and predominant, whether from a political or a commercial point of view, and in which contiguous or other foreign countries undertake not to acquire territory or influence. Such spheres exist on the Northern Frontier of India, in China, Portuguese East Africa and elsewhere.

The *exact* system of government in force in each of the great Self-governing Dominions, and in the Crown Colonies and Protectorates in which notable differences exist between the form of government in vogue and the systems described (1 to 9) above, are given in the following articles; but additional information will be found under the respective territorial headings.

Australia

The legislative power of the Commonwealth is vested in the Federal Parliament, which consists of the Sovereign, the Senate, and the House of Representatives. The Sovereign is represented throughout the Commonwealth by the Governor-General, who, subject to the Constitution of the Commonwealth, has such powers and functions as the Sovereign is pleased to assign to him. In each State there is a State Governor, who is the representative of the Sovereign for the State, and who exercises such powers within the State as are conferred upon him by the Letters Patent which constitute his office, and by the instructions, which inform him in detail of the manner in which his duties are to be fulfilled. The Legislature in each State is also bicameral, and consists of (*a*) a Legislative Council, and (*b*) a Legislative Assembly, or House of Assembly, the legislative powers of these chambers being delimited by the



Photo, Australian Government

GOVERNMENT HOUSE, MELBOURNE

Commonwealth and the State Constitutions. The latter chamber, which is the larger, is always elective; the qualification for the franchise varies in character. The former chamber is, in the case of New South Wales, nominated by the Governor-in-Council, but in the other States it is also elective, the constituencies being differently arranged, and some property qualification for the electorate being required. In the Federal Parliament, however, the qualifications for the franchise are identical for both Houses.

The following table shows the number of members in each of the legislative chambers in the Commonwealth and in each State :—

MEMBERS OF PARLIAMENTS OF AUSTRALIA.

Members in—	C'wealth.	N.S.W.	Victoria.	Q'land.	S. Aust.	W. Aust.	Tasmania.	Total.
Upper Ho.	36	57	34	*10	18	30	18	236
Lower Ho.	75	90	65	72	40	50	30	422
Total -	111	147	99	82	58	80	48	658

* Executive Council. No Upper House.

The use of the expressions "Upper House" and "Lower House" in the above statement, though not justified constitutionally, is convenient, inasmuch as the legislative chambers are known by different names in the Commonwealth and in some of the States.

In the Commonwealth Parliament the Upper House is known as the Senate, and in the State Parliaments as the Legislative Council. The Lower House is known as follows: In the Commonwealth Parliament as the House of Representatives, in the State Parliaments of New South Wales, Victoria, Queensland, and Western Australia as the Legislative Assembly, and in the State Parliaments of South Australia and Tasmania as the House of Assembly.

In both the Commonwealth and the State Legislatures the forms of Government have been founded on their prototype, the Imperial Government, and the relations established between the Ministry and the representatives of the people are in accordance with those prevailing in Great Britain. The executive powers in the Commonwealth and in the State Governments are vested in the Governor-in-Council. The Executive Coun-

cil in the Commonwealth and in the majority of the States is co-extensive with a group of departmental chiefs who are usually spoken of as the Cabinet, and who change with the rise and fall of party majorities. In Victoria and Tasmania, however, the Cabinet on leaving office remain members of the Executive Council, though they no longer attend its meetings, and it is, in fact an essential feature of the Cabinet system of Government that they should not do so, except to assist the Governor in transacting purely formal business, or to advise on non-political questions.

THE EXECUTIVE COUNCIL.

This body is composed of the Governor and the Ministers of State holding office for the time being. The latter are sworn both as Executive Councillors and as Ministers controlling the different administrative departments. It should be observed that all persons living who have held Ministerial office under former Governments are also technically members of the Executive Council, and thus are liable to be specially summoned for attendance at meeting of that body. The meetings are official in character; they are presided over by the Governor General (or Governor) and are attended by the clerk, who keeps a formal record of its proceedings. At these meetings the decisions of the Cabinet are put into official form and made effective, appointments are confirmed, resignations accepted, proceedings ordered, and notices and regulations published.

THE CABINET.

The meetings of this body are private and deliberate. No one is admitted but the actual Ministry of the day, no records of the meetings transpire, and no official notice is taken of the proceedings. The members of the Cabinet, being the leaders of the party in power in Parliament, control the bent of legislation and must retain the confidence of the people and also of the Governor-General (or Governor), to whom they act as an advising body. They also, in effect, wield, by virtue of their seats on the Executive Council, the whole executive force of the community. In summoning, proroguing, or dissolving Parliament, the Governor-General (or Governor) is usually guided by the advice

tendered him by the Cabinet, though legally he is in no way bound to accept such advice.

Although it is technically possible for the Governor to make and unmake Cabinets at his pleasure, under all ordinary circumstances his apparent liberty in choosing his Executive Council is virtually restricted by the operation of constitutional machinery. When a Ministry is defeated in Parliament or at the Polls, the procedure both in the Commonwealth and the State Parliaments generally,

position, and the Governor thereupon " sends for " the person suggested ; and if the latter accepts the responsibility, he endeavours to form a Ministry ; if he fails, he informs the Governor, who applies to some other person.

The distribution of portfolios is first arranged by the proposed Ministers themselves, and is then submitted to the Governor for approval, which is given as a matter of course, unless the list contains the name of any person against whom serious objections



THE TOWN HALL, MELBOURNE

Photo, Australian Government

though not invariably, follows that prevailing in the Imperial Parliament. The members of the Ministry tender their resignations to the Governor-General (or Governor), whose duty it is to announce his intention of accepting them. The resignations are not actually accepted at once, for in that case the offices would become vacant and business would be at a standstill. The outgoing Premier usually suggests to the Governor the name of the most prominent member of the Op-

exist. Before appointing the persons named to the various offices, the Governor accepts the resignations of the outgoing Ministers, and also appoints to seats in the Executive Council such members of the New Ministry as do not already hold them. Their seats in Parliament being ordinarily vacated by acceptance of office, the new Ministers must go before their constituencies, and the result of these by-elections usually decides the attitude of the Opposition. In the Common-

wealth Parliament, however, seats are not vacated by the acceptance of office.

It may be seen from what has been stated above that only certain persons can in practice be chosen as members of a Ministry. The Cabinet must be chosen so that the following conditions are fulfilled : (a) The members must belong to one or other of the Legislative Chambers, and also to the same political party ; (b) that party must possess a majority in the House of Representatives or in the Legislative Assembly or House of Assembly as the case may be ; (c) the Ministers must carry out a concerted policy ; (d) they must acknowledge the leadership of one chief Minister ; and (e) must be under a joint responsibility, signified by resignation *en bloc* in the event of Parliamentary censure.*

A Ministry is bound to resign either when it fails to command a majority in the House of Representatives, the Legislative Assembly, or the House of Assembly, as the case may be, or when a want of confidence has been clearly shown, either (a) by a vote of censure ; (b) by a declaration of want of confidence ; or (c) by a vote disapproving of some act of the Government. In such cases, the Ministry must either resign or must appeal to the country.

In the Commonwealth, all laws are enacted in the name of the Sovereign, the Senate, and the House of Representatives. The subjects with respect to which the Commonwealth Parliament is empowered to make laws are enumerated in the Constitution Act. In the States, laws are enacted in the name of the Sovereign by and with the consent of the Legislative Council and Legislative Assembly or House of Assembly. The Governor-General or the State Governor acts as Viceroy as regards giving the Royal Assent to or vetoing Bills passed by the Legislatures, or reserving them for the special consideration of the Sovereign. In the States, the Councils and Assemblies are empowered generally, subject to the Commonwealth Constitution, to make laws in and for their respective States in all cases whatsoever. Subject to certain limitations, they may alter, repeal, or vary their Constitution. Where a law of a State is inconsistent with a law of the Commonwealth, the latter prevails, and the former is, to the extent of inconsistency, invalid.

POWERS OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL.

The Governor-General and the State Governors act under the authority of the commissions by which they are appointed, and of Letters Patent under the Great Seal of the United Kingdom, also according to instructions issued by the Dominions Office and passed under the Royal Sign Manual and Signet.

The office of Governor-General and Commander-in-Chief of the Commonwealth was constituted by Letters Patent issued on the 29th October, 1900, in pursuance of the provisions of the Commonwealth Constitution Act. The powers and duties of the Governor-General were further defined by Royal Instructions passed on the same date. The principal and most important of his functions, legislative as well as executive, are expressly conferred upon him by the terms of the Constitution itself. He is the custodian of the Great Seal of the Commonwealth, and has the appointment of political officers to administer the Departments of State of the Commonwealth.

(a) His legislative functions are exercised with respect to proposed laws as finally passed by the Federal Houses of Parliament. Such Bills are presented to the Governor-General for his assent in the King's name, on receiving which they become law throughout the Commonwealth. The Governor-General may, however, withhold his assent, or may reserve any Bill for the King's pleasure. He may return to the House in which it originated any proposed law with suggested amendments. The King may disallow any law within one year from the date on which it was assented to by the Governor-General.

(b) The Governor-General's executive functions are, under ordinary circumstances, exercised on the advice of his responsible Ministers. Various specific powers are vested in him by the Constitution ; he may summon or prorogue Parliament and may dissolve the House of Representatives. He is the Commander-in-Chief of the naval and military forces of the Commonwealth, and is invested by the Crown with the prerogative of mercy in the case of offences committed against the laws of the Commonwealth.

* See Jenks' *Government of Victoria*, pp. 269 *et seq.*

(c) The Governor-General is also invested with authority in certain matters of Imperial interest, such as the control of the naval and military forces of the Commonwealth; the observation of relations of foreign States to Great Britain, so far as they may be affected by the indirect relations of such States to the Commonwealth; and the treatment of neutral and belligerent ships in Commonwealth waters in time of war.

and also by the Royal Instructions accompanying the same. A State Governor is the official head of the State Legislature, and assents in the name of the Crown to all Bills passed by the Parliament, reserving for the Royal Assent certain classes of Bills, which are regulated by the Constitution Acts and by the instructions issued by the Imperial Government. The Governors are, under ordinary circumstances, guided by their Executive Councils; the chief matters in



GOVERNMENT HOUSE, PERTH, WEST AUSTRALIA *Photo, Australian Government*

The Governor-General may not leave the Commonwealth without having first obtained leave from the Imperial Government, to whom he is alone responsible for his official acts.

THE STATE GOVERNORS.

The powers and functions of the State Governors are, within their respective States, very similar to those exercised by the Governor-General for the Commonwealth, and are defined by the terms of their Commissions,

which the exercise of discretion is required being the granting or withholding of a dissolution of Parliament when requested by a Premier; the appointment of a new Ministry; or the assenting to, vetoing, or receiving of Bills passed by the Legislative Chambers. The Governors are authorised, under certain restrictions, to administer the prerogative of mercy by the reprieve or pardon of criminal offenders within their jurisdiction, and to remit fines and penalties due to the Crown. All moneys to be expended for the

public service are issued from the Treasury under the Governor's warrant.

THE FEDERAL PARLIAMENT.

The Senate consists of thirty-six members, six being returned by each of the original federating States. Members of this Chamber are elected for a term of six years, but by a provision in the Constitution a certain number retire at the end of every third year, although they are eligible for re-election. In accordance with the Constitution, the total number of members of the House of Representatives must be as nearly as possible double that of the Senate. In the House of Representatives the States are represented on a population basis. The Constitution provides for a minimum of five members in each original State. Members of the House of Representatives are elected for the duration of the Parliament, which is limited to three years. In elections for Senators each State is counted as a single electorate, but an elaborate scheme of sub-division had to be undertaken in order to provide workable electorates in each State for members of the House of Representatives. Members of both Houses are paid at the rate of £600 per annum.

ADMINISTRATIVE GOVERNMENT.

In each State, as well as in the Commonwealth, the Government is administered by a number of chief departments, on lines similar to those on which administrative government is carried on in the United Kingdom. In the States, the number and functions of the administrative departments vary considerably. In many cases more than one department is under the control of a single Minister. The tabular statement given here shows the sub-departments and branches of each Ministerial department in each State and in the Commonwealth, together with the Acts administered and other more important matters dealt with.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

In all civilised nations, whatever the previous course of their constitutional history, the persistent and rapid growth of the functions of the central Government, with repeated assumption of new and onerous duties and responsibilities, has rendered some attempts at decentralisation and some

form of local government essential. Without such relief, national administration would be difficult. Experience, ancient and modern alike, has demonstrated that a completely centralised bureaucracy—that is, a body of officials working from a single centre and responsible only to itself—cannot carry on indefinitely the administration of a large country; such a body tends to ignore the varieties of local conditions, to become stereotyped in its ideas and methods, and, sooner or later, breakdown is inevitable. There are two possible policies which a Legislature may adopt towards local authorities, apart from the imposition of compulsory duties upon them.

There is, first, (*a*) the grant of general power to all local bodies of a particular class—that is, the Legislature may establish a set of authorities and empower them to do anything which in their judgment will tend to promote the satisfactory administration and general well-being of the areas under their control, so long as any particular powers which they propose to use are not expressly prohibited or reserved to other authorities. But, as this liberty might easily in some cases be abused, there is necessarily the restriction, of greater or less extent, according to the country and the nature of the authorities in question, that the actual exercise of these general powers shall be subject to the approval of an administrative department of the central government. Or, on the other hand, the Legislature may (*b*) grant only specific powers to local bodies—that is, may give them permission to do all or any of a number of enumerated things, with or without the approval of the central departments, and in this case nothing further can be done by the local body unless permitted by fresh legislative enactments.

In a general way, it may be said that legislation on the Continent of Europe has ordinarily followed the first of these two methods, and has given to the local self-governing communities power to do anything for which they can get administrative approval; while in the Commonwealth, as well as in Great Britain and the United States, the practice has been the opposite one—local authorities are empowered to do only specified things; but in order, in spite of this, to allow free play to local initiative and enterprise, Parliamentary procedure permits

SYSTEM OF COMMONWEALTH ADMINISTRATIVE GOVERNMENT

Departments, Sub-departments, Branches, etc.	Acts Administered.	Matters dealt with or under Control.
1. Prime Minister's— (a) Auditor-General (b) Public Service Commissioner	Arbitration (Public Service), Commonwealth Public Service Commonwealth Salaries, Parliamentary Allowances, Petherick Collection, Royal Commissions	Auditor-General and Staff, Communication with the Governor-General, Communication with the States, Officers of the Parliament, Public Service Commissioner and Staff, Royal Commissions, <i>The Commonwealth of Australia Gazette</i> , the Federal Executive Council
2. Attorney-General's— (a) Crown-Solicitor (b) High Court (c) Patents, Copyright, Designs, and Trade Marks	Acts Interpretation, Amendments Incorporation, Bills of Exchange, Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration, Copyright, Designs, Evidence, Extradition, High Court Procedure, Judiciary, Jury Exemption, Parliamentary Papers, Patents, Trade-marks and Designs, Rules Publication, Service and Execution of Process, State Law and Records Recognition, Statutory Declarations	Bankruptcy and Insolvency, Bills of Exchange and Promissory Notes, Conciliation and Arbitration, Copyright, Crown Law Offices, Designs, Divorce and Matrimonial Cases, Foreign Corporations, Judiciary and Courts, Marriage, Patents, Parliamentary Drafting, Recognition throughout Commonwealth of State laws, records and judicial proceedings, Service and Execution throughout Commonwealth of State process and judgments, Trade Marks, Trading and Financial Corporations formed within the limits of the Commonwealth
3. Home Affairs— (a) Bureau of Census and Statistics (b) Electoral Office (c) Lands and Surveys (d) Meteorological Office (e) Public Works	Census and Statistics, Commonwealth Electoral, Commonwealth Franchise, Constitution Alteration (Senate Elections), Disputed Elections and Qualifications, Electoral Divisions, Electoral Validating, Governor-General's Residences, Kalgoorlie to Port Augusta Railway, Lands Acquisition, Meteorology, Referendum (Constitution Alteration), Representation, Seat of Government, Seat of Government Acceptance, Seat of Government Administration, Senate Elections	Astronomy, Census and Statistics, Elections, Franchise, Lands, Meteorology, Public Works, Railways, Representation of the People, Rivers, Seat of Government, Surveys
4. Treasury— (a) Land Tax and Assessment (b) Old Age Pensions (c) Maternity Bonus	Appropriation, Audit, Australian Notes, Bank Notes Tax, Coinage, Commonwealth Bank, Commonwealth Inscribed Stock, Constitution Alteration (State Debts), Invalid and Old Age Pensions, Land Tax, Land Tax Assessment, Life Assurance (Companies), Loan Act, Marine Insurance, Maternity Bonus, Supply, Surplus Revenue, Tasmania Grant, Trust Fund Advances	Appropriation and Supply, Assistance to States, Banking, Currency, Coin and Legal Tender, Government Printer, Insurance, Invalid and Old Age Pensions, Maternity Bonus, Public Loans, Public Moneys, State Debts, Taxation (other than duties of Customs and of Excise)
5. Trade and Customs— (a) Customs and Excise (b) Fisheries (c) Navigation (d) Quarantine	Australian Industries Preservation, Beer Excise, Bounties, Commerce (trade descriptions), Customs, Customs (Inter-State Accounts), Customs Tariff, Distillation, Excise, Excise Procedure, Excise Tariff, Lighthouse, Manufactures Encouragement, Quarantine, Sea-carriage of Goods, Seamen's Compensation, Secret Commissions, Shale Oils Bounties, Spirits, Sugar Bounty	Bounties, Bureau of Agriculture, Customs and Excise, Fisheries (other than Pearl Shell or Trepan) in Australian waters beyond territorial limits, Inter-State Commission, Lighthouses, Lightships, Beacons and Buoys, Quarantine, Trade and Commerce (including Navigation and Shipping), Weights and Measures
6. External Affairs— (a) Advertising and Immigration (b) High Commissioner's Office (c) Northern Territory (d) <i>Papua</i> (e) Territory acquired from Germany in Great War of 1914-18	Contract Immigrants, Emigration, High Commissioner, Immigration Restriction, Naturalisation, Northern Territory Acceptance, Northern Territory (Administration), Pacific Island Labourers, Papua, ex-German Sphere	Consular Appointments, External Affairs, Pearl Shell and Trepan Fisheries in Australian waters beyond territorial limits, High Commissioner, Immigration and Emigration, Influx of Criminals, Naturalisation and Aliens, Passports, People of Races (other than the Aboriginal races in any State) for whom it is deemed necessary to make special laws, Relations with the Pacific Islands, Territories of the Commonwealth
7. Defence— (a) Military Board (b) Naval Board (c) Air Board	Defence, Naval Agreement, Naval Defence, Military Service, Pensions, Aerial Defence, etc.	Control of Railways with respect to transport for Naval and Military purposes, Naval and Military Defence, Naval and Military Factories and Workshops, Aeroplanes and Aerial Navigation
8. Postmaster-General's—	Pacific Cable, Post and Telegraph, Post and Telegraph Rates, Purchase Telephone Lines Acquisition, Telegraph, Wireless Telegraphy	Postal, Telegraph, and other like services.

of local authorities being able to obtain additional powers for particular works or undertakings by means of special acts. This difference between the British and Continental systems has two important results.

The first is that in England (Australia, etc.) the enterprise and activity of local authorities depends upon the temper and ideas of Parliament—that is to say, upon the elected representatives of the nation; whilst throughout a large part of the Continent of Europe the controlling influence is ordinarily exercised by a bureaucracy whose opinions upon the matter in question may or may not be coincident with that of the majority of the electorate. The result is that in Australia it is the business of the State Parliaments to determine what powers are to be conferred upon local authorities, while ordinarily, under the Continental systems the administrative bodies have to regulate what the local authorities may or may not do. The efficiency of such Continental systems depends almost entirely upon the character of the controlling bureaucracy,

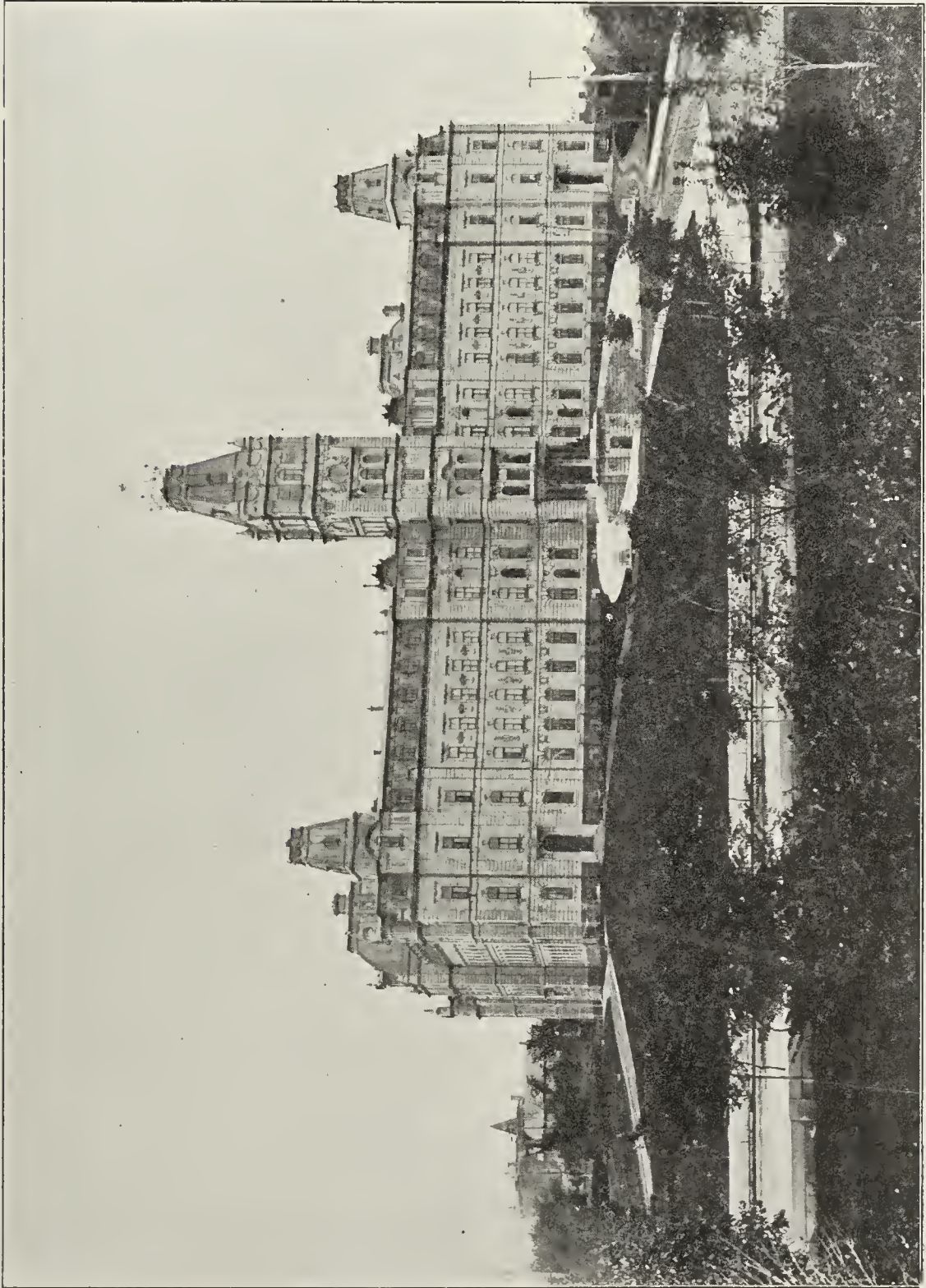
although it is true that the legal powers of a municipality under that system might be very much wider than those of a municipal council in Australia. If the bureaucracy is enterprising and ready to encourage and aid in every way the growth of local action and experiment—as it was in Prussia previous to the Great War—then there is the largest scope for municipal development; but if, as in France, the bureaucracy is conservative in its ideas and slow to move, the action of local authorities remains cramped and limited.

The second important result of the difference between the Australian and Continental systems is that in all matters entrusted to them, local authorities in Australia consider their duty is to carry out the law according to the will of, and in the manner desired by, the ratepayers of their local areas, subject generally to the supervision of the central Government, whereas on the Continent of Europe local authorities regard themselves normally as bodies appointed to carry out, within their respective localities, the will of



RESIDENCE OF THE GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF CANADA

Photo, C. P. Rly.



Photo, Agent-General for Quebec

PROVINCIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, QUEBEC

the central Government, even in such matters as are of purely local importance. Local authorities under the Continental systems are responsible to the central Government and are subject to administrative control, whilst in Australia municipal councils, so long as they do not infringe the Acts under which they are constituted, or which they have to administer, are responsible only to the ratepayers of their respective localities.

Canada

The Dominion of Canada is a confederation of nine Provinces. The duties of government are divided between the Dominion and the Provinces. The Dominion is governed by a Legislature or Parliament, which makes the laws. Parliament is composed of two houses, the Commons, elected by the people, and the Senate, appointed by the Government.

The qualification of voters for the House of Commons varies in the different Provinces, being fixed by the Provincial Legislatures, but it is either manhood suffrage—one man, one vote—or the property qualification is very light.

THE CABINET.

The Cabinet, or Government, which administers the laws passed by Parliament, is composed of members of Parliament, who must have the support of a majority in the Commons, or elective branch, in order to hold power.

A change of policy, by reason of a change of Government, may occur at any time, and an election to decide as to the views of the people on the change already made or proposed may be held at any time.

This is the system known as responsible government, whereby every member of the Government is fully and entirely responsible to the people for every administrative act of himself or his colleagues. It places the people in more direct and absolute control than any other form.

THE CONSTITUTION.

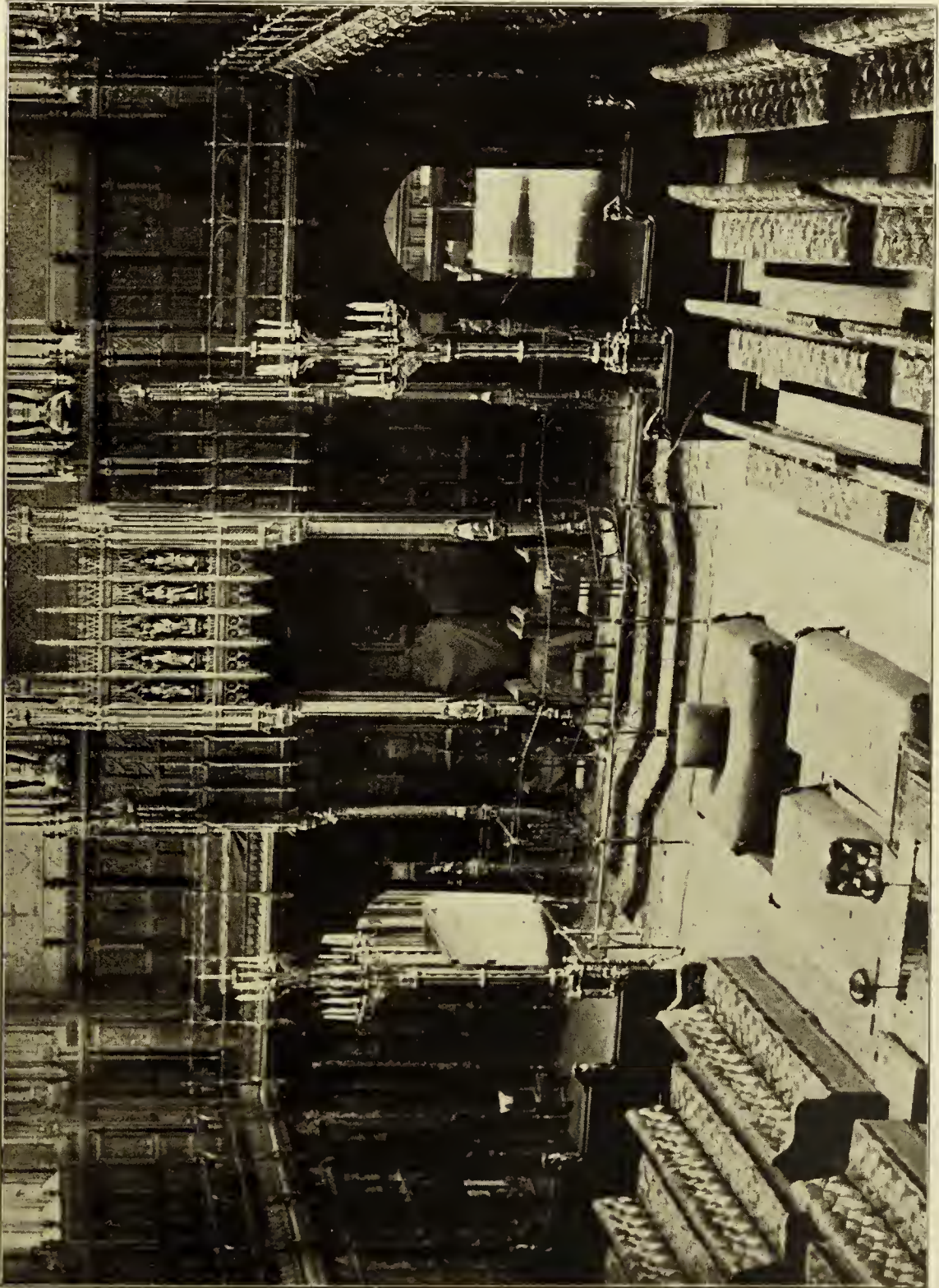
The constitutional development of Canada down to Confederation is mainly based upon four important acts of the British Parliament, the Quebec Act of 1774, the Constitutional Act of 1791, the Act of Union of 1840, and the British North America Act of 1867.

The first of these is chiefly important as establishing the French civil law throughout the then province of Quebec. The second is noteworthy for the division of the province into the French-speaking province of Lower Canada and the English-speaking province of Upper Canada, and for the concession of Representative Government through an elective Legislative Assembly, which, however, had no control over the executive government except in so far as it could refuse to vote taxes (the non-tax revenue of the province was outside of its control). The third of the above-mentioned acts reunited the two Canadas under a single Legislature and conceded the principle of Responsible Government, the Executive Administration being henceforth the creature of the Legislature. The fourth separated the two Canadas from their existing legislative union to make them provinces, each administering its own local affairs, in a wider Confederation, which within a comparatively short period so extended its boundaries so as to take in the whole of British North America except Newfoundland and Labrador.

In the preamble to the British North America Act, which defines the internal constitution, it is stated that the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia and New Brunswick "have expressed their desire to be federally united into one Dominion, with a Constitution similar in principle to that of the United Kingdom." Thus the constitution is not an imitation of that of the United States, it is the British Constitution federalized. Like the British and unlike the American Constitution, it is not a written constitution. The many unwritten conventions of the British Constitution are also recognised; what we have in the British North America Act is a written delimitation of the respective powers of the Dominion and Provincial Governments.

DOMINION GOVERNMENT.

The Act declares that the executive government of Canada shall continue to be vested in the Sovereign of the United Kingdom (sec. 9), represented for Dominion purposes by the Governor-General, as for provincial purposes by the Lieutenant-Governor. The Governor-General is advised by the King's Privy Council for Canada, a



Photo, Underwood

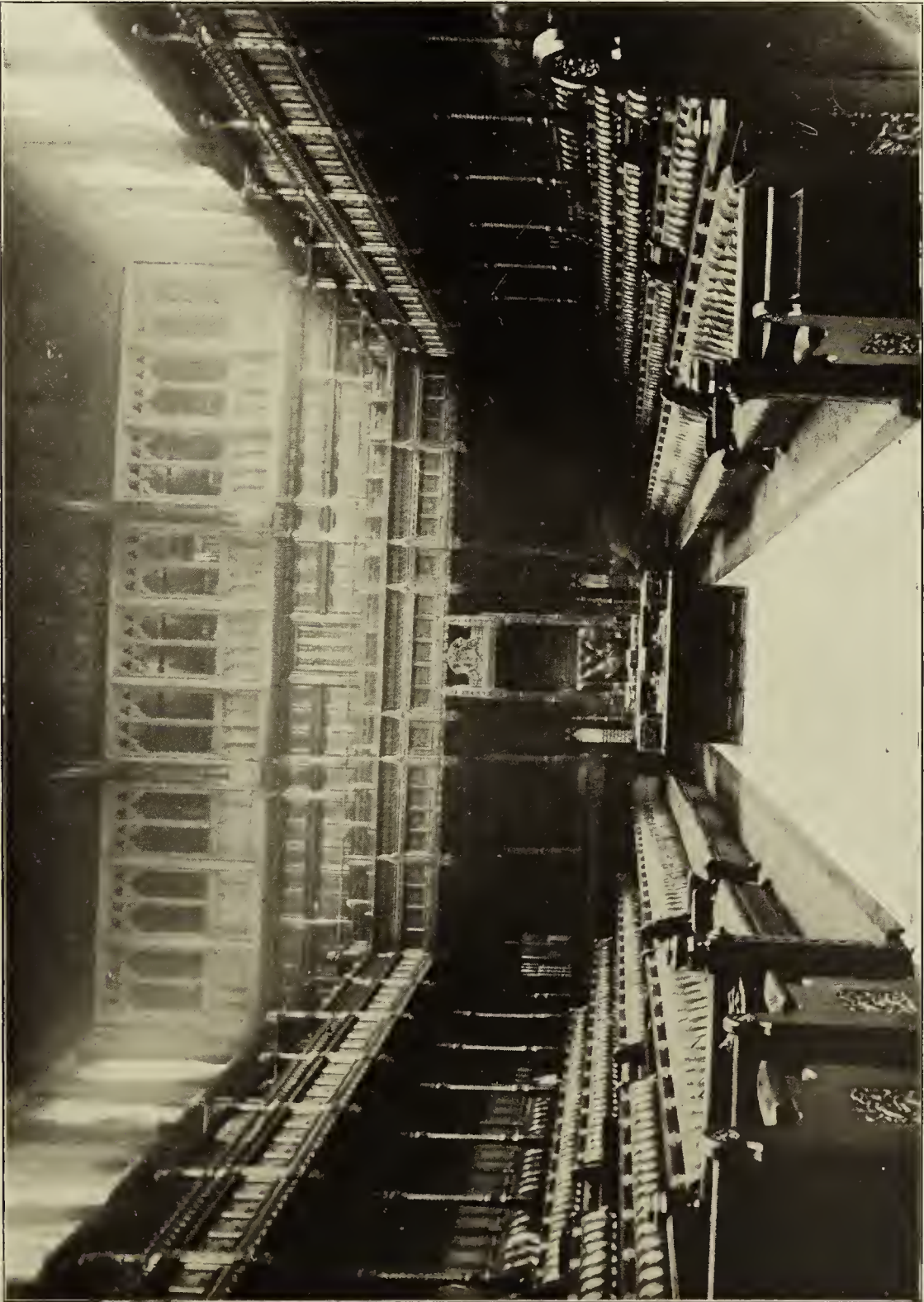
THE HOUSE OF LORDS

The Throne Chairs can be seen on the dais in the centre of the picture



THE FAMOUS CABINET ROOM AT 10 DOWNING STREET, WESTMINSTER, LONDON
The meeting place of British Ministers

Photo, Central News



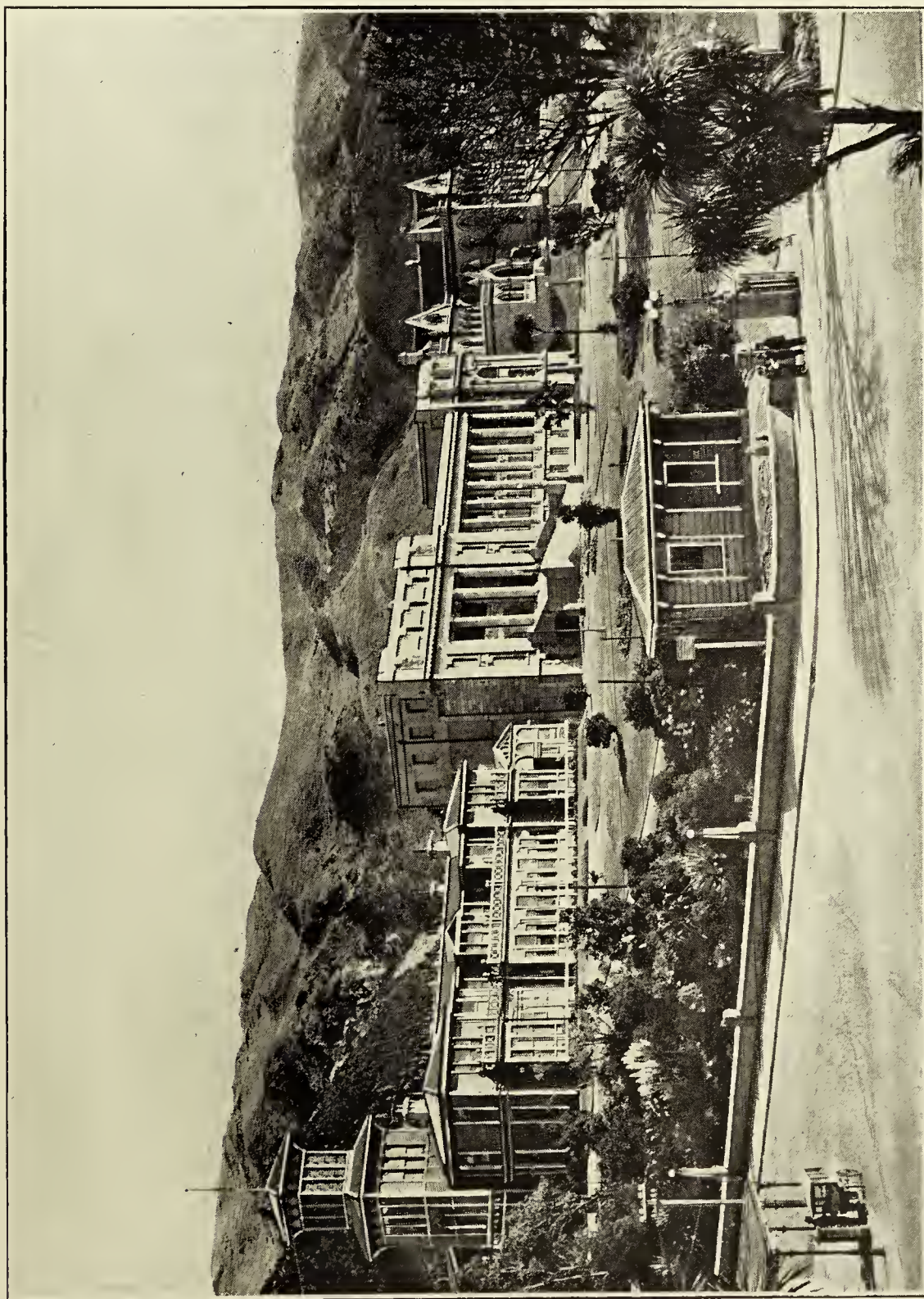
Photo, Sport and General

INTERIOR, HOUSE OF COMMONS
The Speaker's Chair can be seen in the centre of the picture



PALACE OF THE MAHARAJAH OF JEYPORE

Photo, Underwood



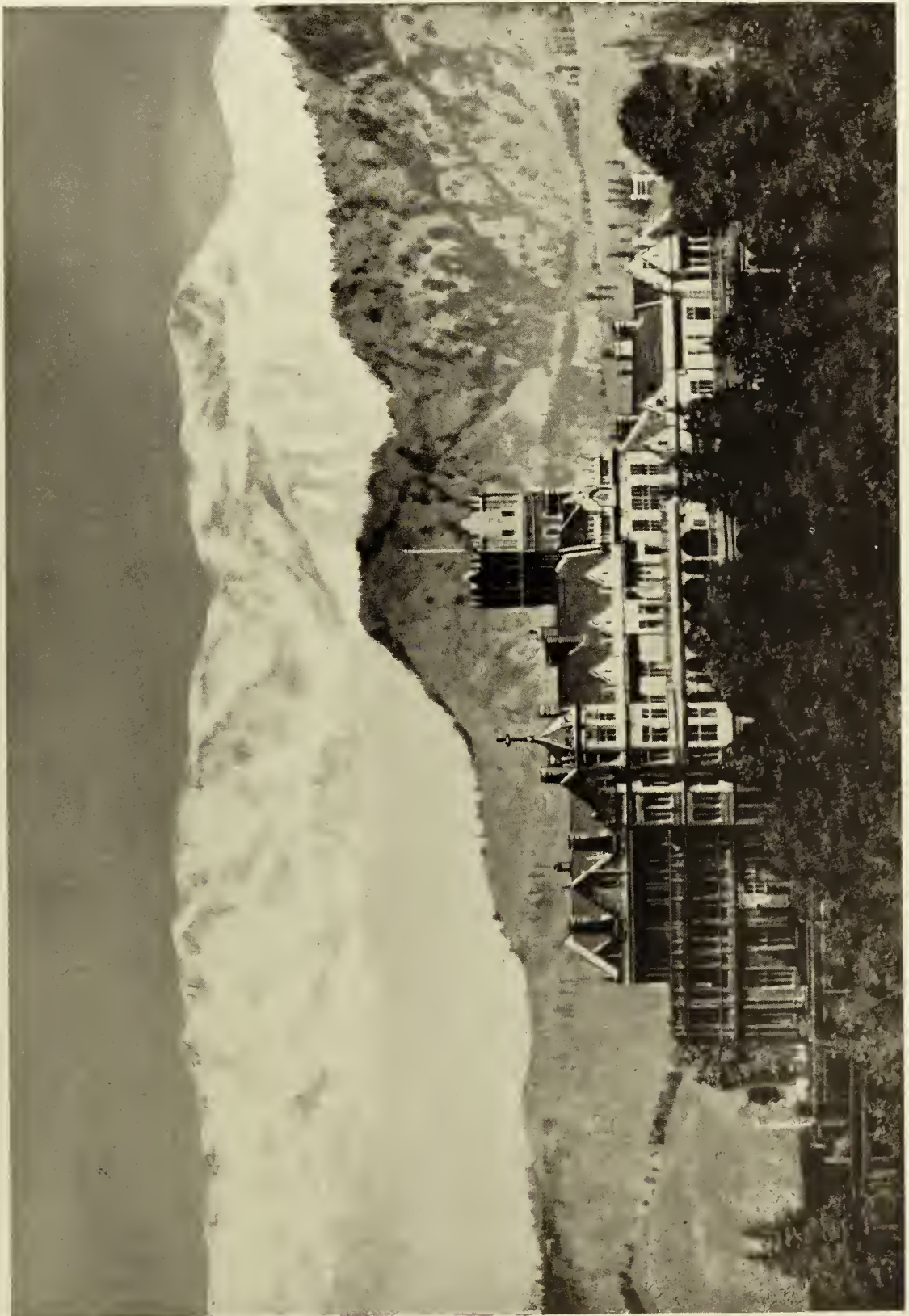
PARLIAMENT GROUNDS, WELLINGTON

Photo, New Zealand Government



GOVERNMENT HOUSE, PRETORIA

Photo, South African Government



VICEREGAL LODGE, SIMLA

The Viceroy's Summer Residence, with the Eternal Snows of the mighty Himalayas in the background



MUNICIPAL BUILDINGS, SINGAPORE

committee of which constitutes the Ministry of the day.

The Dominion Parliament consists of the King, the Senate and the House of Commons. It must meet at least once a year, so that twelve months do not elapse between the last meeting in one session and the first meeting in the next. Senators, 96 in number, who are appointed for life by the Governor-General in Council, must be 30 years of age, British subjects, residents of the province for which they are appointed, and possess

fixing and providing for salaries and allowances of the officers of the government; beacons, buoys and lighthouses; navigation and shipping; quarantine and the establishment and maintenance of marine hospitals; sea-coast and inland fisheries; ferries on an international or interprovincial frontier; currency and coinage; banking, incorporation of banks, and issue of paper money; savings banks; weights and measures; bills of exchange and promissory notes; interest; legal tender; bankruptcy and



Photo, High Commissioner for Canada

PROVINCIAL PARLIAMENT BUILDINGS, FREDERICTON, NEW BRUNSWICK, CANADA

\$4,000 over and above their liabilities. Members of the House of Commons (245 in 1929) are elected by the people for the duration of the Parliament, which may not be longer than five years.

The Dominion Parliament has exclusive legislative authority in all matters relating to the following: public debt and property; regulation of trade and commerce; raising of money by any mode of taxation; borrowing of money on the public credit; postal service; census and statistics; militia, military and naval service and defence;

insolvency; patents of invention and discovery; copyrights; Indians and lands reserved for Indians; naturalization and aliens; marriage and divorce; the criminal law, except the constitution of courts of criminal jurisdiction, but including the procedure in criminal matters; the establishment, maintenance and management of penitentiaries; such classes of subjects as are expressly excepted in the enumeration of the classes of subjects by the Act exclusively assigned to the legislatures of the Provinces.

THE PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENTS.

In each of the provinces the King is represented by a Lieutenant-Governor, appointed by the Governor-General in Council, and governing with the advice and assistance of his Ministry or Executive Council, which is responsible to the Legislature and resigns office when it ceases to enjoy the confidence of that body. The Legislatures are unicameral, consisting of a Legislative Assembly elected by the people, except in Quebec, where there is a Legislative Council as well as a Legislative Assembly.

The Legislature in each Province may exclusively make laws in relation to the following matters: amendment of the constitution of the Province, except as regards the Lieutenant-Governor; direct taxation within the province; borrowing of money on the credit of the province; establishment and tenure of provincial offices and appointment and payment of provincial officers; the management and sale of public lands belonging to the province and of the timber and wood thereon; the establishment, maintenance and management of public and reformatory prisons in and for the province; the establishment, maintenance and management of hospitals, asylums, charities and eleemosynary institutions in and for the province, other than marine hospitals; municipal institutions in the province; shop, saloon, tavern, auctioneer and other licenses issued for the raising of provincial or municipal revenue; local works and undertakings other than interprovincial or international lines of ships, railways, canals, telegraphs, etc., or works which, though wholly situated within one province, are declared by the Dominion Parliament to be for the general advantage either of Canada or of two or more provinces; the incorporation of companies with provincial objects; the solemnisation of marriage in the province; property and civil rights in the province; the administration of justice in the province, including the constitution, maintenance and organisation of provincial courts both of civil and criminal jurisdiction, and including procedure in civil matters in these courts; the imposition of punishment by fine, penalty, or imprisonment for enforcing any law of the province relating to any of the aforesaid subjects; generally all matters of a merely local or private nature in the province.

Further, in and for each province the Legislature may exclusively make laws in relation to education, subject to certain provisions for the protection of religious minorities, who are to retain the privileges and rights enjoyed before Confederation.

REPRESENTATION OF THE PEOPLE.

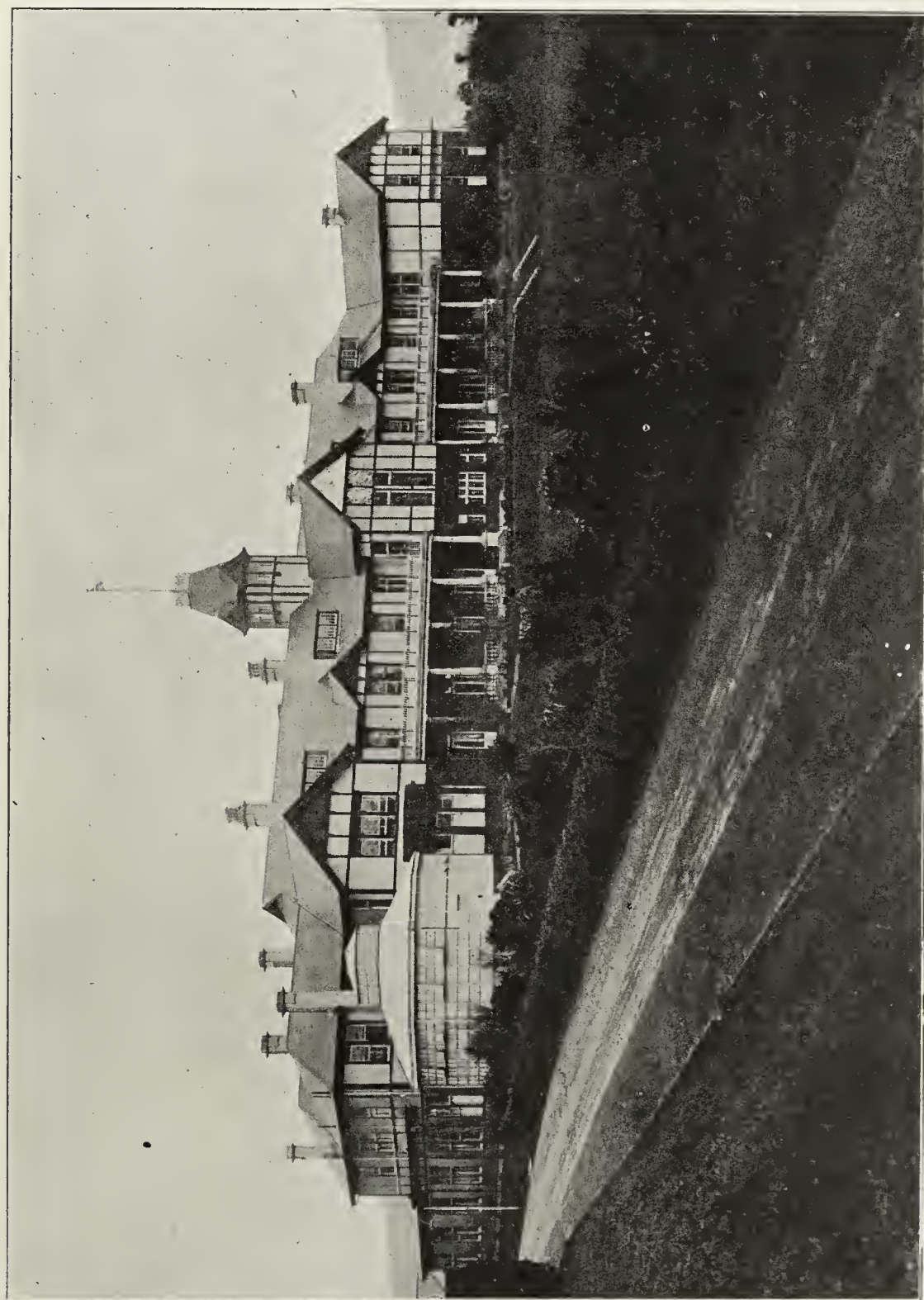
A Redistribution Act, passed after each census, readjusts the number of representatives in the House of Commons in accordance with rules laid down in Section 51 of the British North America Act, 1867, of the Imperial Parliament (30-31 Vict., c. 3). These rules provide that the Province of Quebec shall always have the fixed number of 65 members, and that there shall be assigned to each of the other Provinces such a number of members as will bear the same proportion to the number of its population (ascertained by the census) as the number of 65 bears to the population of Quebec.

Indian Empire

HOME GOVERNMENT.

Until the great Mutiny, India was governed by a Chartered Company, with powers similar to, but in excess of, those possessed by the British South Africa Company until lately administering Rhodesia. (*See* INDIA, HISTORY.) On the suppression of the Sepoy Revolt, the British Government assumed control of Indian affairs, and in 1858 a law was passed vesting the supreme authority over India in the Crown, acting through a "Secretary of State for India," whose salary was provided from the revenues of India.

With the disappearance of the old "Court of Directors" of the Chartered Company, came the establishment of a Council to advise the Secretary of State. This body is known as "The Council of India," and consists of thirteen members, of whom nine must have had at least ten years' experience in Indian administration, law, and commerce. Two members of this Council are Indians. The powers of this Council are principally advisory, but matters affecting finance are, according to law, disposed of by a majority of votes in Council. In all other matters the Secretary of State for India can, if he so desires, disregard the advice of the Council. Papers of a secret, or information of a confidential character are not placed before the



GOVERNMENT HOUSE, WELLINGTON
The official residence of the Governor-General of New Zealand

Photo, New Zealand Government

Council, but it advises upon a veritable host of matters of lesser importance, and for this purpose is divided into seven departmental committees.

The actual legal power of the Secretary of State is almost autocratic, so long as he has the confidence of the Cabinet and the support of a strong Parliamentary majority, but so great are the responsibilities of this office that no statesman of ability—mostly without Indian experience—would lightly disregard the strong advice of the Council, combined with the recommendations of the Governor-General.

A Proclamation by Queen Victoria in 1858 defined the function of the Governor-General and his relation to the Secretary of State, as follows: "To administer the Government in Our name, and generally to act in Our name and on Our behalf, subject to such orders and regulations as he shall from time to time receive through one of Our Principal Secretaries of State." From this it will be seen that even the Governor-General, or Viceroy, as he is now styled, is subject to the Secretary of State, who can *accept or refuse* advice from the Council-of-India, but *holds office* at the pleasure of the *King-Emperor*.

The Secretary of State is assisted in his deliberations by a secretariat and clerical establishment, known as the India Office (London), the staff of which is principally composed of permanent officials drawn from the Civil Service (*q.v.*). The cost of this establishment is paid from the revenues of India.

GOVERNMENT OF INDIA.

The administrative system of the East India Company in the pre-Mutiny days is described in some detail in the article in this Encyclopedia on the HISTORY OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE. It is, therefore, sufficient to say that in 1773 an Act was passed by the Imperial Parliament establishing a Governor assisted by a small Advisory Council in each of the three great British-Indian Presidencies—Bengal, Madras, and Bombay. The Governorship of Bengal was declared supreme, and the chief official therein was given the title of Governor-General. On the transference of Indian Administration and control from the Company to the Crown, the title of the *supreme authority in India* was altered and raised to that of "Viceroy."

The "Viceroy and Governor-General" is appointed by the Crown, and is assisted by an Executive Council, which consists of seven members, at least three of whom must have had ten years' practical experience of Indian affairs. Four members of this Council are distinguished Indians. The business of Government is largely distributed among these officials, who may be termed Heads of Departments. These Secretaries to the Government of India must submit all questions of importance to the Viceroy, who can either pronounce judgment or reserve it until after discussion in Council (or submit the question to the Secretary of State in London). All military matters are disposed of by the Commander-in-Chief, who has an adequate staff under him, and is himself, *ex-officio*, a member of the Viceroy's Executive Council.

The powers of the Viceroy are very great. He can overrule his Executive Council, veto any legislation of which he disapproves, and legislate on his own authority, but, in the latter case, any law made by himself can only continue in force for a maximum period of six months. The power of initiating legislation was given for use in emergencies, and has seldom been employed. The official correspondence between the Viceroy and the Home Government is known to members of the Executive Council, who append their signatures to the dispatches, but the Viceroy is also in private communication with the Secretary of State, and there is no obligation on the part of the Viceroy to show this correspondence to members of his Executive Council.

The actual administration is conducted by 11 Departments under the Secretaries to the Government. These departments and the principal affairs with which they deal are as follows:—

- (1) Foreign and Political Department—
 - (a) Relations with Afghanistan, Nepal, Tibet, Persia, China, and other countries adjacent to British India.
 - (b) Supervision of the Native States of India through Political Residents and Agents, whom it appoints.
 - (c) Relations with Iraq, Persian Gulf, Muscat, Oman and other portions of Arabia, through its accredited Political Residents.



INTERIOR OF THE DOMINION HOUSES OF PARLIAMENT, WELLINGTON, NEW ZEALAND
Photo, New Zealand Government

- (2) Finance Department—
 - (a) Public Accounts.
 - (b) Loans.
 - (c) Taxation.
 - (d) Monopolies.
 - (e) Currency.
 - (f) Banking.
 - (g) The Mints.
- (3) Army Department—
 - (a) All matters connected with the Indian Army.
 - (b) Certain matters connected with the North-West Frontier of India.
 - (c) Garrisons of Indian troops in outlying stations.
- (4) Home Department—
 - (a) Civil Service.
 - (b) Judicial System.
 - (c) Police Forces.
 - (d) Prisons.
 - (e) Internal Politics.
- (5) Commercial Department—
 - (a) Trade.
 - (b) Shipping.
 - (c) Ports.
 - (d) Customs.
 - (e) Excise.
 - (f) Postal Services.
 - (g) Telegraphs and Wireless.
- (6) Industrial and Labour Department—
 - (a) Factories.
 - (b) Stores.
 - (c) Munitions for Military Forces.
 - (d) Labour.
 - (e) Irrigation.
 - (f) Roads.
 - (g) Public Works.
 - (h) Posts and Telegraphs.
 - (i) Civil Aviation.
- (7) Education, Health and Lands—
 - (a) Local Government.
 - (b) Education.
 - (c) Sanitation and Medical Service.
 - (d) Land, Revenue and Surveys.
 - (e) Agriculture.
 - (f) Famine Relief.
 - (g) Forests.
- (8) Railway Department—
 - (a) Railways.
 - (b) River Transport.
- (9) Legislative Department—
 - (a) Government Bills.
 - (b) Relations with the Indian Legislature.
 - (c) Solicitor to the Government.

The Government of India, therefore, consists of the Viceroy, and his Executive Council, with headquarters at Delhi and Simla, assisted by the nine Departments of State. There is, however, another and more modern factor in the political system—the Indian Legislature.

THE PARLIAMENT OF INDIA.

Under the Government of India Act 1919, an Indian Legislature was formally established. It consists of the Viceroy and two Chambers: (1) the Council of State; and (2) the Legislative Assembly. The former has 34 elected members and 26 nominated members, of whom 19 are officials, and the latter Chamber 105 elected members and 40 nominated members, of whom 25 are officials. The representation of the different races and interests, so far as elected members are concerned, is shown in the following table.

Representation.	Council of State.	Legislative Assembly.
European Commerce -	3	9
Non-Mohammedan -	17	48
Mohammedans -	10	30
Sikhs -	1	2
General Population -	3	2
Landowners -	—	7
Indian Commerce -	—	4
Burmese -	—	3
Total Elected Members -	34	105
Nominated -	26	40
Grand total -	60	145

Bills must be passed by both Chambers, except in special cases provided for in the Constitution Act. In emergencies the Viceroy can secure legislation, return Bills, certify them, or veto proposed legislation which in his judgment affects the safety or tranquility of India.

The Budget is submitted to both Chambers, and is voted on by the Legislative Assembly, but certain heads of expenditure must be passed. In all cases the Governor-General-in-Council can act, and authorise expenditure, notwithstanding the refusal or reduction of grants by the Legislature when it is considered necessary for the good government of the Indian Empire.

Although the Government of India is independent of the votes of the Legislature and is responsible only to the Secretary of State for India in the Home Government (*q.v.*), in actual practice it is, nevertheless, guided by public opinion as expressed through this elected body.

The composition of both Houses ensures very wide representation, and does not exclude important minorities. For example, the members representing Mohammedan interests in India would have been scarcely likely to have found such a powerful place had the system of representation been purely territorial or social. The Mohammedan interest, although important in the aggregate, would have been outvoted almost everywhere had a more orthodox system been introduced. The legislature has considerable powers. It can guide or obstruct the proceedings of the Executive by asking questions and can in this manner make its voice heard, and also make uncomfortable the position of any Government official of whom it disapproves. Members can move resolutions affecting the policy of India.

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT.

British India has been divided into a number of Provinces (*see* INDIAN EMPIRE) for active administrative purposes. Each of these Provinces is ruled by a Governor or Lieutenant-Governor. In the former case there is an Executive Council of three members, two of whom must be Indian Civil Servants of long experience. In the latter case there need be no Executive Council, but the Lieutenant-Governor is assisted in actual practice by "Secretaries" or officials with delegated powers. The difference between a Governor and a Lieutenant-Governor is that the former is often a distinguished British statesman with but little (comparatively) Indian experience, but possessing the great advantage of an unbiased mind and fresh ideas, he, therefore, needs an Executive (or Advisory) Council of experienced officials. A Lieutenant-Governor is always a high official of the Indian Civil Service, with long practical experience in India, and, therefore, needs no Advisory Council, but only assistance in the work of administration.*

Most of the Provinces of British India have Legislative Councils modelled on the same

lines and with similar powers (local) to those of the Imperial Legislature at Delhi. In the case of these Councils, however, *the majority* are non-official members, and a large proportion are elected.

The Government of India retains the administration of all truly "Imperial" services, such as the army, the political service, customs tariff, general taxation, currency, telegraphs, railways, and State borrowings, but over many other branches of administration the Provincial Governments have complete control. In order to provide for these responsibilities, Provincial Governments retain a certain share of the revenue collected. It would be misleading to give here the exact composition of the Provincial Legislative Councils, as the number of members changes. Those affairs over which the Supreme Government have authority are classified as "Central," and those administered by the Provinces as "Provincial" (*see Finance*).

LOCAL ADMINISTRATION.

British India is divided for administrative purposes into (about) 273 "Districts" with areas varying from 2,000 to 10,000 square miles, and populations of from 500,000 to 4,000,000. In each District there is a "District Officer" or "Deputy Commissioner," who supervises the collection of the Government revenue and also holds the office of Chief Magistrate of a district. This official hears appeals from magistrates in various parts holding lesser magisterial powers, and can institute methods for the prevention as well as the suppression of crime. Although actually responsible only for the fiscal and magisterial administration, he also possesses general powers of supervision over all departmental officers in the district. With the police he is in close connection, and he can advise and even interfere between the engineering, medical, and forest officers and their departmental chiefs at headquarters. These powers give to the District Officer a measure of authority amounting almost to what may be termed a local Governor.

It must not be supposed, however, that no check is placed on the liberal powers of District Officers. Appeals can be made from the decisions of these Officers to the Court of the Sessions Judge, who is quite independent

* Executive Councils are now being appointed for the assistance of Lieutenant-Governors.

of "District" authority. The Lieutenant-Governor of the Province supervises the work of all District Officers through Commissioners—one being appointed to supervise a "Division" consisting of five or six districts.

The departmental officers, such as police officials, engineers, medical officers, and those in the forest service, are under the direct control of Inspectors-General of Police, Chief Engineers, Inspectors-General of Civil Hospitals and Conservators of Forests.

INDIAN CIVIL SERVICE.

Although an account of this wonderful administrative corps appears under *Indian Empire*, it is necessary here to give a few statistical facts concerning it to enable the reader of this article to understand by whom the actual work of administration is carried on. About the I.C.S. as a body, it need only be said that no finer administrative corps exists, although, perhaps, rather too few in number and rather too restricted as regards entry to encourage brilliance.

The Indian Civil Service is the nerve system of the administration which it practically monopolises, although it does not concern itself with the technical departments of government, such as education, engineering, medical, police, or forest services. Its chief functions are the judicial and executive administration of British India, with the exception of a few of the most lofty seats in the Government of the Empire, such as that of the Viceroy, and some members of the Executive Council (also of course the Indian Legislature); of the Governorships of Bombay and Madras, and of most of the Judge-ships of the High Court.

The posts reserved for members of the Indian Civil Service are classed as "Imperial," as distinct from similar "Provincial" appointments, many of which are occupied by natives. The number of Imperial posts is only about 687, but, in order to provide for the training of junior officers of the I.C.S., and for vacancies through leave or ill-health, the Service is maintained at about 1,050 members—to administer a vast territory populated by nearly 325 millions of mixed races. The *Provincial* posts, including the majority of civil judgeships and magistracies, are often occupied by natives, and number about 3,800.

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

It is in this elementary class of administration that Indian native talent is being slowly schooled for higher administrative control on European lines. Honorary Magistrates, with powers corresponding to those of Justices of the Peace in England, are appointed, and between 3,000-4,000 Indian gentlemen are rendering unpaid services in this way. There are also Honorary Civil Judges. Every town in British India (5,000 population upwards) has been given a Municipal Board, and the welfare of village communities and the countryside has been committed to the charge of Rural Boards, whose jurisdiction spreads over the whole country. There are 742 Municipal and about 1,100 Rural Boards, administering revenues of about £4,000,000 collectively. The average proportion of *elected* members on the municipal Boards amounts to one-half, the other being filled by Government nomination. This style of self-government is comparatively new to India and needs official guidance.

Newfoundland

The oldest Colony of the British Empire is Newfoundland, which was annexed to the Crown of England by Sir Humphrey Gilbert in 1583. Queen Elizabeth accepted the new possession, which was acknowledged by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713). Fifteen years later the first Governor was appointed, and Newfoundland was administered as a Crown Colony until given responsible Government in 1855.

The Governor is aided by an Executive Council. The Parliament consists of two Houses, the Legislative Council of not more than 24 members nominated by the Crown and appointed for life, and the House of Assembly, composed of 36 elected members. The ordinary duration of Parliament is four years. Every British male subject, who has reached 21 years of age, and every female British subject, aged 25 years, is entitled to the franchise. The seat of Government is St. John's, the capital of the Dominion.

New Zealand

British sovereignty was proclaimed over New Zealand in January, 1840, and the country became a dependency of New South

Wales until the 3rd May, 1841, when it was made a separate Colony. The seat of Government was at Auckland, and the Executive included the Governor, and three gentlemen holding office as Colonial Secretary, Colonial Treasurer, and Attorney-General. The successors of these officials continued in office until the establishment of Responsible Government on the 7th May, 1856. Only one of them—the Hon. Mr. Swainson, without ceasing to be Attorney-General—sat as a

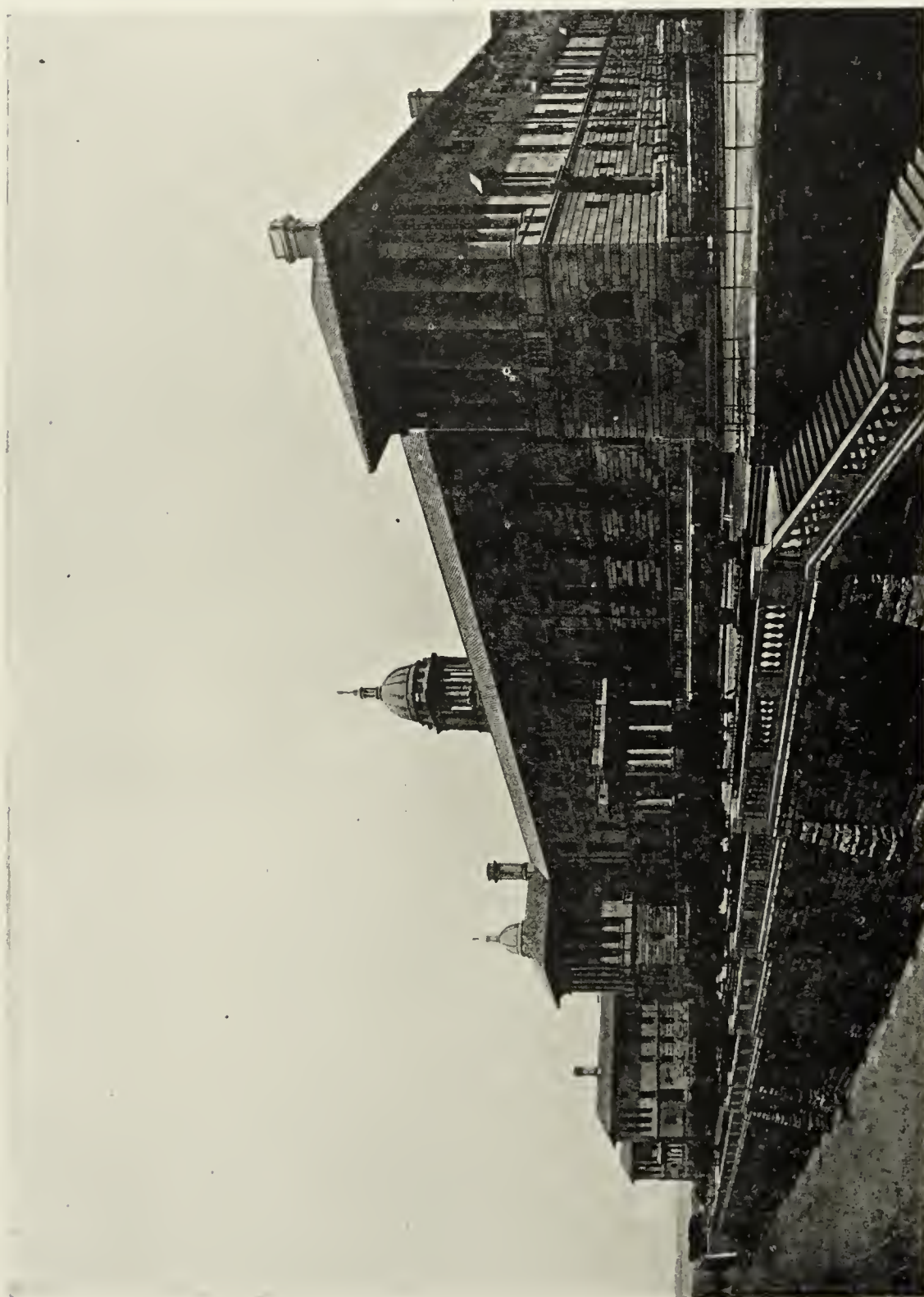
member of the first General Assembly (being Speaker of the Legislative Council) which was opened on the 27th May, 1854. During the session of that year there were associated with the permanent members of the Executive Council certain members of the House of Representatives. These latter held no portfolios.

The Government of the Colony was at first vested in the Governor, who was responsible only to the Crown; but, in 1852, an Act



THE TOWN HALL, AUCKLAND
The Municipal Offices contain a very fine organ

Photo, New Zealand Government



THE UNION GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, PRETORIA

Photo, South African Government

granting representative institutions to the Colony was passed by the Imperial Parliament. Under it the constitution of a General Assembly for the whole Colony was provided for, to consist of a Legislative Council, the members of which were to be nominated by the Governor, and of an elective House of Representatives.

The first session of the General Assembly was opened on the 27th May, 1854, but the members of the Executive were not responsible to Parliament. The first Ministers under a system of Responsible Government were appointed in the year 1856. By the Act of 1852 the Colony was divided into six Provinces, each to be presided over by an elective Superintendent and to have an elective Provincial Council, empowered to legislate, except on certain specified subjects. The franchise amounted practically to household suffrage. In each case the election was for four years, but a dissolution of the Provincial Council by the Governor could take place at any time, necessitating a fresh election both of the Council and of the Superintendent. The Superintendent was chosen by the whole body of electors of the Province ;

each member of the Provincial Council by the electors of a district. The Provincial Governments, afterwards increased to nine, remained as integral parts of the Constitution of the Colony until the 1st November, 1876, when they were abolished by an Act of the General Assembly, that body having been vested with the power of altering the Constitution Act. On the same day, an Act of the General Assembly which subdivided the Colony (exclusive of the areas included within municipalities) into counties, and established a system of local government, came into force.

On addresses from both Houses of the General Assembly, His Majesty the King, by Order in Council, dated 9th September, 1907, and by Proclamation issued 10th September, 1907, was graciously pleased to change the style and designation of the Colony of New Zealand to "The Dominion of New Zealand."

THE GOVERNMENT.

The Governor is appointed by the King. His salary is £5,000 a year, with an annual allowance of £2,000 on account of his estab-



THE CASTLE, CAPE TOWN, SOUTH AFRICA *Photo, South African Government*

lishment, and of £500 for travelling expenses, provided by the Dominion.

Members of the General Legislative Council hold their seats under writs of summons from the Governor. Till the year 1891 the appointments were for life; but in September of that year an Act was passed making appointments after that time tenable for seven years only, though Councillors may be re-appointed. In either case, seats may be vacated by resignation or extended absence.

The members of the House of Representatives (now designated M.P.) are elected for three years from the time of each general election; but at any time a dissolution of Parliament by the Governor may render a general election necessary. Four of the members are representatives of Native constituencies. For the purpose of European representation, the Dominion is divided into seventy-six electoral districts, each returning one member. The full number of members

composing the House of Representatives is eighty. Members of the House are chosen by the votes of the electors.

In 1889 an amendment of the Representation Act was passed, which contained a provision prohibiting any elector from giving his vote in respect of more than one electorate at any election. In 1893 women of both races were granted by law the right to vote at the election for members of the House of Representatives. The qualification for registration is the same for both sexes. No person is entitled to be registered on more than one electoral roll within the Dominion. Every man registered as an elector, and not specially excepted by the Legislature Act now in force, is qualified to be elected a member of the House of Representatives for any electoral district. For European representation, every adult person, if resident one year in the Dominion and three months in one electoral district, can be registered as an elector.



Photo, South African Government

THE OLD DUTCH GATEWAY, THE CASTLE, CAPE TOWN



THE TOWN HALL, DURBAN, NATAL

Photo, South African Government

Freehold property of the value of £25 held for six months preceding the day of registration until 1896 entitled a man or woman to register, if not previously registered under the residential qualification ; but in 1896 the property qualification was abolished (except in case of existing registrations), and residence alone now entitles a man or woman to have his or her name placed upon an electoral roll.

a period of five years, and making future appointments to the Council tenable for seven years only, to be reckoned from the date of the writ of summons of the Councillor's appointment, though every such Councillor may be re-appointed. The qualifications are that the person to be appointed be a male of the full age of 21 years, and a subject of His Majesty, either natural born or naturalised by or under any Act of the



THE OLD GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS, PRETORIA

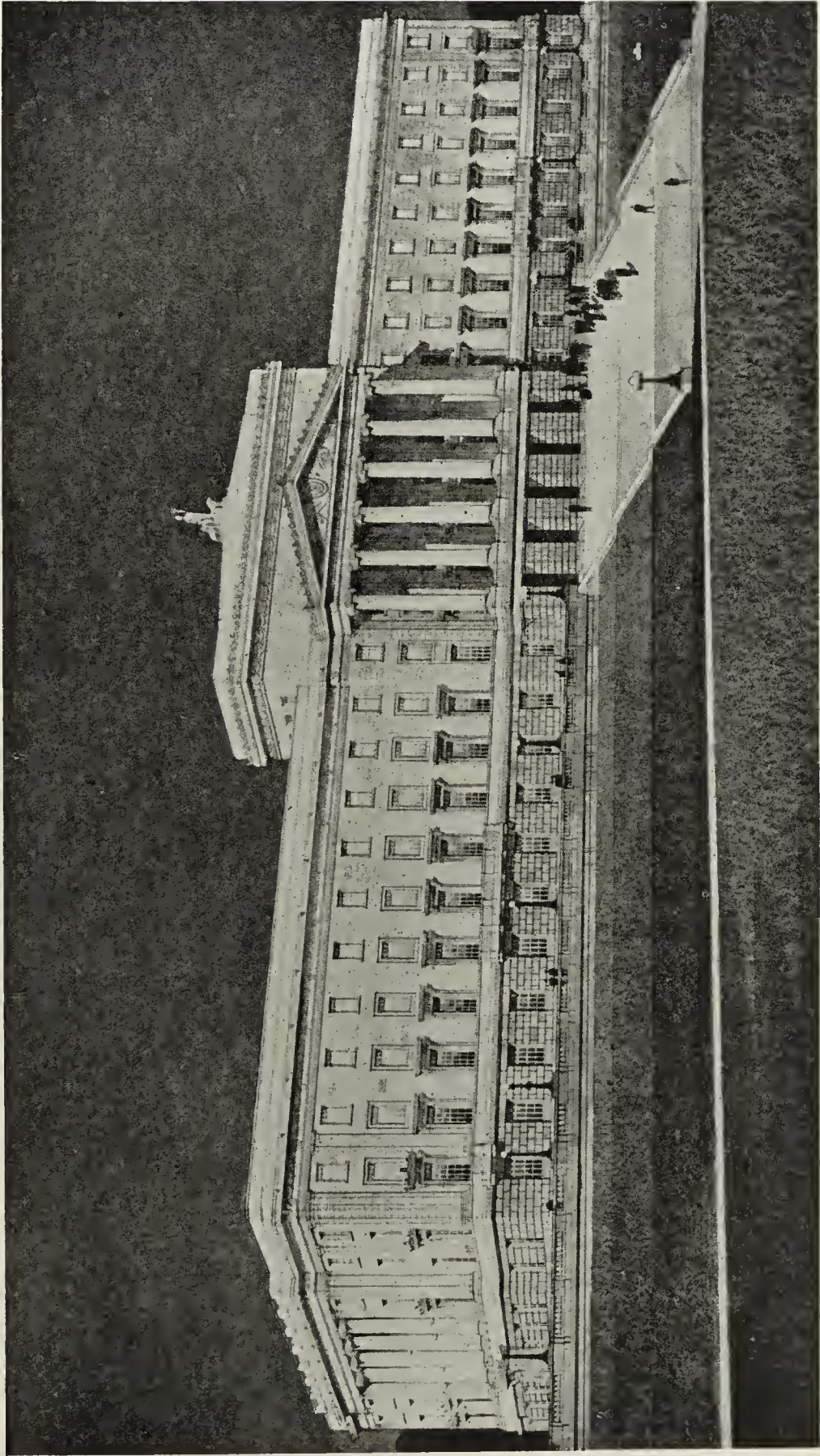
Photo, South African Government

For Maori representation every adult Maori resident in any Maori electoral district (of which there are only four in the Dominion), can vote.

LEGISLATIVE COUNCIL.

The number of members at present constituting the Legislative Council is forty-one, and is not limited. Prior to 1891 Councillors summoned by the Governor held their appointments for life ; but on the 17th September of that year an Act was passed giving the Council power to elect its own Speaker for

Imperial Parliament or by or under any act of the General Assembly of New Zealand. All contractors to the public service to an amount of over £50 and Civil Servants of the Dominion are ineligible as Councillors. Payment of Councillors is at the rate of £300 a year, payable monthly. Actual travelling expenses to and from Wellington are also allowed. A deduction of £1 5s. per sitting-day is made in case of an absence exceeding fourteen sitting-days in any one session, except through illness or other unavoidable cause. Leave of absence may also be granted



THE NEW GOVERNMENT BUILDING, NORTHERN IRELAND

by His Excellency the Governor, and when so granted for a session, the payment ceases from the date of the Proclamation calling Parliament to meet until the next Proclamation calling Parliament together is issued.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

The number of members constituting the House of Representatives is eighty—seventy-six Europeans and four Maoris. They are now designated Members of Parliament. The North Island at present returns forty-two European members, and the South Island thirty-four. The elections are triennial, except in the case of a dissolution by the Governor. The conditions regarding the

The powers vested in the Commissioner are very wide. They include the inspection of offices, the appointment, promotion, transfer, and dismissal of officers, and the framing of regulations. An entrance examination and efficiency and educational tests for promotion are imposed by the Commissioner. Provision has been made for an appeal Board, so that any officer dissatisfied with a decision of the Commissioner has the right of appeal to the Board.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT.

For purposes of local government, New Zealand is divided into counties and boroughs; the counties being, for adminis-



THE LAW COURTS, BLOEMFONTEIN

Photo, South African Government

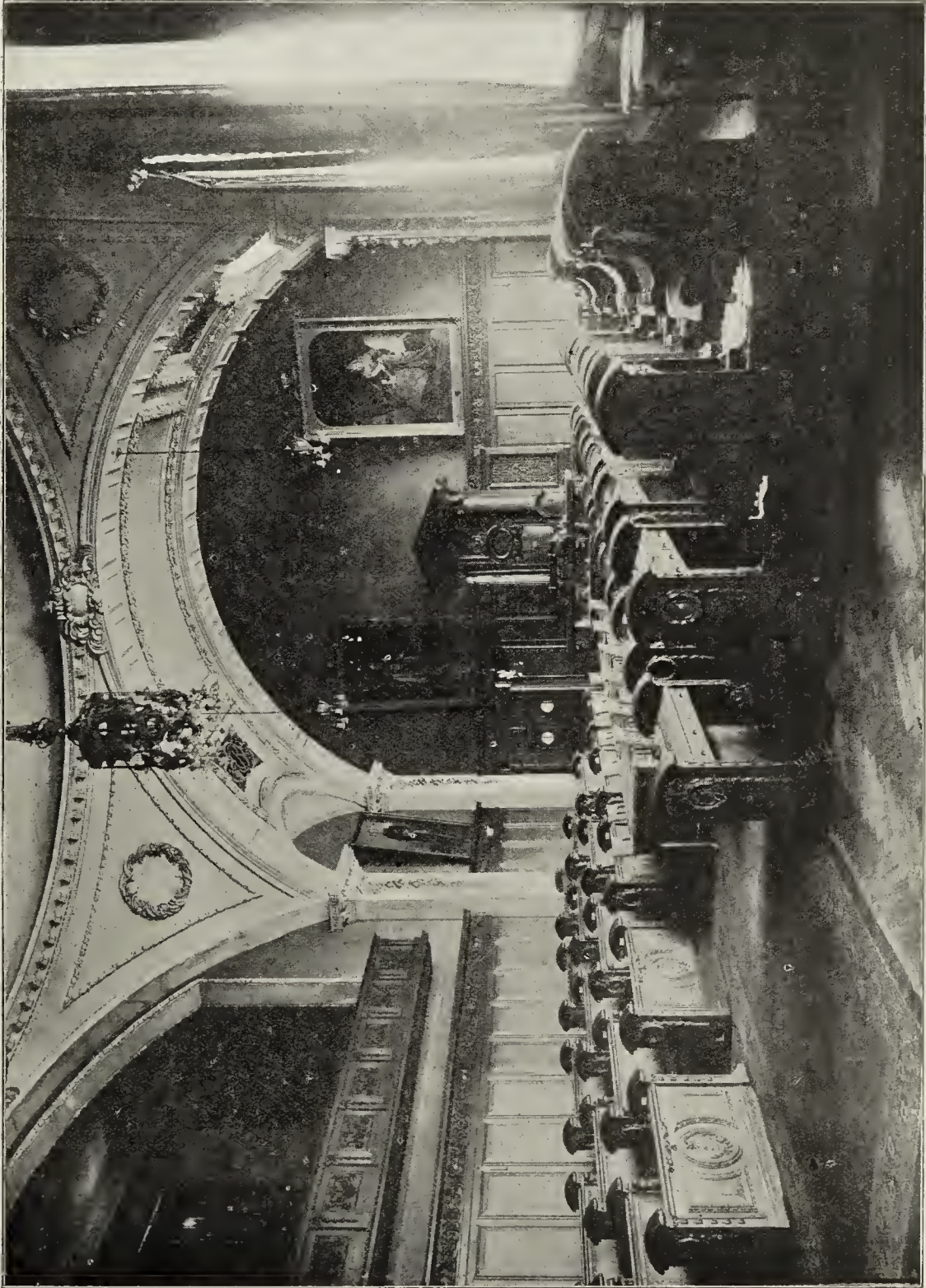
exclusion of Government contractors and Civil Servants are the same as for the Legislative Council. The payment made to members of the Lower House is £450 per annum, subject to certain deductions for absence during session not due to sickness or other unavoidable cause. Travelling expenses to and from Wellington are also allowed.

ADMINISTRATION.

The public service of New Zealand has been placed under the direct and sole control of a Commissioner and two Assistants, who are appointed for seven years, are responsible only to Parliament, and can be dismissed from office only for misbehaviour or incompetence.

trative purposes, in some cases sub-divided into road and town districts, and certain of the latter, having a population of over 500, possess powers independent of county control.

Counties are constituted by special Act, but two or more existing counties may, by Proclamation, be united to form one county. Boroughs are constituted by Proclamation and must possess a population of not less than 1,000 but must not exceed in area more than nine square miles, nor must any point be distant further than six miles from another. Any locality not exceeding two square miles in area, outside a borough, and wherein there are not less than fifty householders, may be proclaimed a town district.



AN HISTORIC CHAMBER

The Council Room of the Belfast City Hall, where the Parliament of the State of Northern Ireland held its first Session

Photo, Topical Press

A road district may comprise any portion of the area of the county within which it lies, and may be created by special order of the council of such county. Harbour Boards are formed by special Act, and in some cases possess rating powers over areas already included within counties and boroughs. Special districts with limited powers, may be constituted for specific purposes, such as river protection, drainage and water-supply.

The Union of South Africa

The self-governing Colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony became united, on the 31st May, 1910, by the South Africa Act, in a Legislative Union under a single Government, to be known as "The Union of South Africa." The Governor-General is appointed by the King. He is also the "High Commissioner for South Africa," having sole charge of the Crown Colonies of Bechuanaland, Basutoland and Swaziland (*q.v.*), which do not form part of the Union.

The Governor-General is assisted by an Executive Council, composed of the Ministers for the time being. This body administers the Executive Government of the Union, which has charge of all State property, the railways, harbours, and customs. The members of the Executive Council of the Governor-General are also the King's Ministers of State for the Union.

PARLIAMENT.

The Legislative power is vested in a Senate and House of Assembly. The Governor-General, acting in the name of the King, can summon, prorogue, or dissolve both Houses at once, or the House of Assembly alone. The Senate consists of thirty-two *elected* members, eight for each Province; and eight nominated members, four of whom are selected for their knowledge of native affairs. The first election of Senators was made previous to the establishment of the Union by the two Houses of each of the Colonial Legislatures sitting in council as one body. Vacancies are, however, filled by the choice of the Provincial Council of the Province in the representation of which the vacancy (in the Senate) occurs, and by the House of Assembly of such Province jointly.

Every Senator must be a British subject of European descent qualified as a voter in one of the Provinces, not less than 30 years of age, and have been resident within the Union for five years. Elected Senators must also possess registered property to the value of £500 above any mortgage.

The House of Assembly consists of 135 elected members; the Cape Province returning 51, Natal 17, the Transvaal Province 50, and the Orange Free State 17. Each electoral district in each Province now returns one member.

Every member of the House of Assembly must be a British subject of European descent, qualified as a voter, and have been resident within the Union for a period of five years. Members must take the oath of allegiance. A House of Assembly, unless dissolved, continues for a period of five years from the date of its first meeting.

All Money Bills must originate in the House of Assembly and not the Senate, but the former cannot pass a Bill for taxation or appropriation unless the said Bill has been recommended by message from the Governor-General during the Session. The Senate is restricted as to the amendments it may make of Money Bills. There are definite arrangements for adjusting differences between the two Houses of the Union Parliament. All Bills require the Royal Assent, and there are arrangements for disallowing laws assented to by the Governor-General-in-Council. The seat of Executive Government is Pretoria, and of Legislative Government Cape Town.

Northern Ireland

Provision was made for responsible government in Northern Ireland in an Act passed by the Imperial Parliament in 1914, but owing to the outbreak of war in Europe and a revolutionary movement in Southern Ireland the operation of this Act (which embraced the whole island) was suspended. In 1920, however, a new Bill was passed granting self-government to (1) the State of Northern Ireland, and (2) the Irish Free State.

In the former State the Executive is vested in the King-Emperor, who is represented by a Governor, with seven Ministers and an



DAIL EIREANN
The historic session of the Parliament of the Irish Free State at which it was decided to ratify the Agreement with Great Britain
Photo, Topical Press

Attorney-General responsible to the Legislature. The Parliament consists of a Senate, with 26 members. The Lord Mayor of Belfast and the Mayor of Londonderry are members of the Senate by virtue of their civic office. The House of Commons consists of 52 elected members; 32 representing Ulster Counties, 16 Belfast, and four members for Queen's University. Each member receives an allowance of £200 a year.

The powers reserved by the Imperial Government are given in the article devoted to *Northern Ireland*. This new Commonwealth State is represented in the Parliament of the United Kingdom by 13 members. Although a contribution to the expenditure of Great Britain, amounting to nearly £9,000,000 a year is provided for by the

and the remainder can be chosen from among the electors, but must not be members of Parliament during their term of office unless special permission is granted by the President of the Executive Council (confined to three Ministers). In 1930 only nine Ministers had been appointed to office.

The Senate consists of 60 members, 30 of whom are elected by the Chamber of Deputies and 30 are nominated by the President of the Executive Council. Half the latter hold office for 12 years and the other half for only six years. To be eligible for this branch of the Legislature a candidate must be over 35 years of age and have done honour to the nation by reason of useful public service, or be elected to represent an important aspect of national life.



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

THE LAW COURTS, KINGSTON, JAMAICA, BRITISH WEST INDIES

Government of Ireland Act 1920, certain sums of money have to be repaid out of the Consolidated Fund of the United Kingdom as a residuary share of the reserved taxes(*q.v.*).

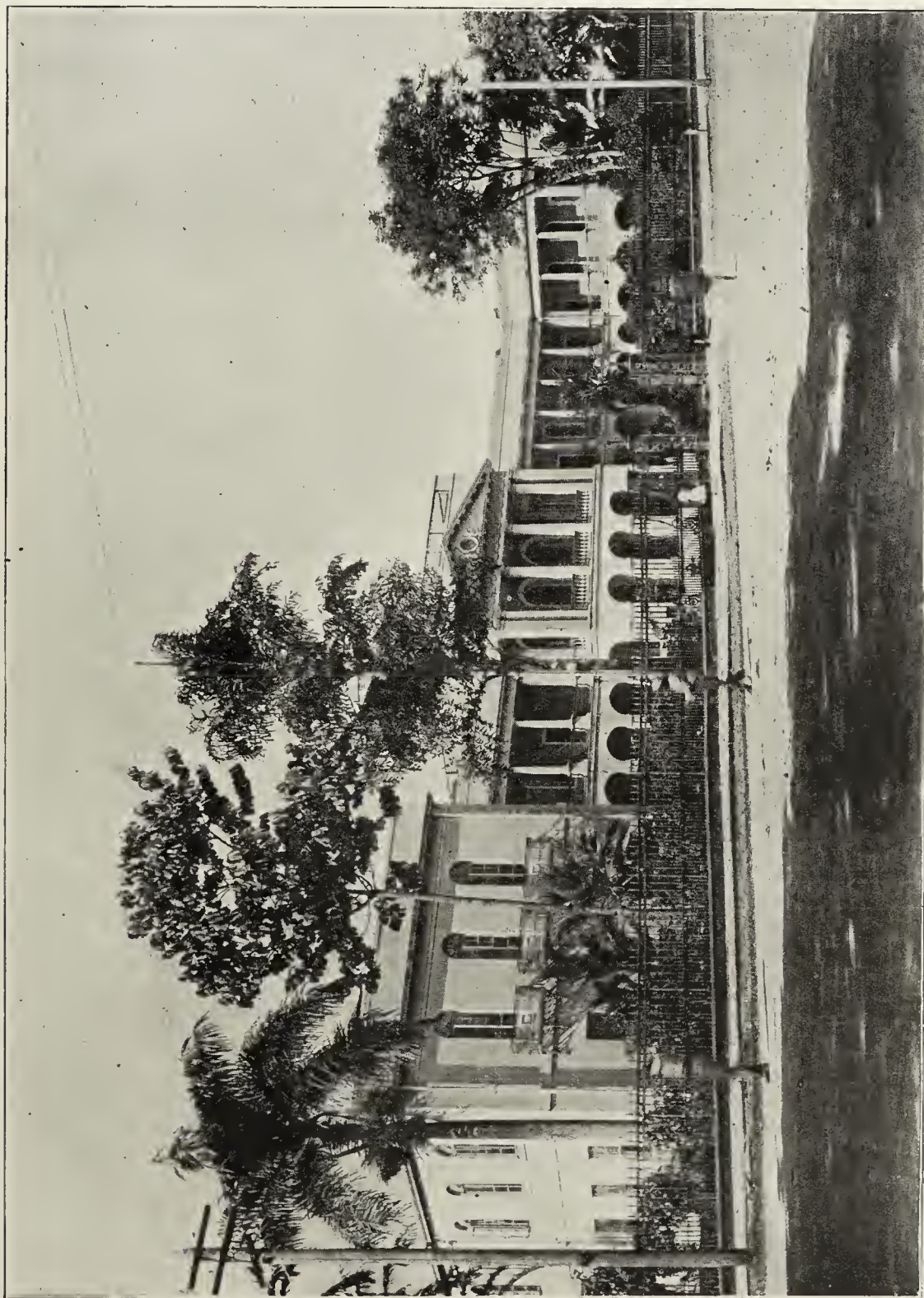
Irish Free State

This new and co-equal member of the British Commonwealth of Nations obtained its Charter for Self-government under the Irish Free State Agreement Act, 1922. The Executive Authority is vested in the King, but is exercised through the Governor-General in the same way as in the Dominion of Canada. The Executive Council consists of not more than 12 Ministers appointed by the Representative of the Crown, but responsible to Parliament. Four of these Ministers must be members of the Chamber of Deputies

The Chamber of Deputies consists of 153 members, each of whom are paid £30 a month together with free travelling facilities between their constituencies and Dublin, the seat of Government (*see* IRISH FREE STATE).

Southern Rhodesia

Up to the close of the year 1923 Southern Rhodesia had what is known as "Charter Government," the British South Africa Company being granted a Royal Charter to administer the territory in 1899. At first, Government was entirely in its hands, but as settlement was advanced the control of the Company was correspondingly lessened. In October, 1922, the people were asked to vote for (1) Responsible Government, or (2) Incorporation in the Union of South Africa.



THE LEGISLATURE AND GOVERNMENT OFFICES, GEORGETOWN, BRITISH GUIANA
Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

The result of this referendum was a majority of 2,785 votes (out of a total of 14,763) for Responsible Government. The first Governor was Sir John Chancellor and the first Prime Minister Sir Charles Coghlan. The Cabinet consists of six Ministers.

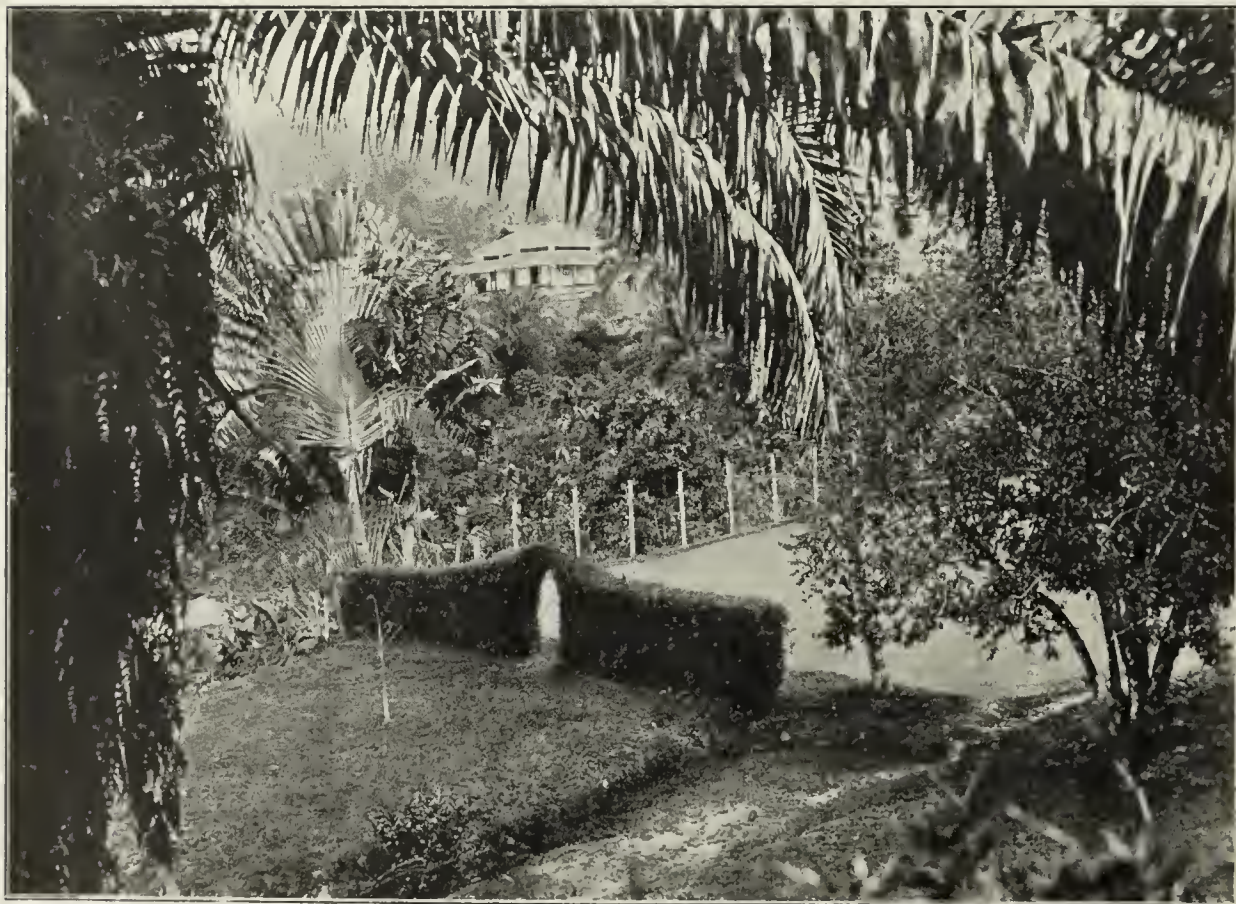
Whereas, during the time of the Chartered Company, the Legislative Council consisted of a number of Government Officials nominated by the Administration and 13 elected members, under Responsible Government, it has become an assembly consisting of 30 elected members.

Other Colonies

Those States which differ in their form of government from the general administrative systems given at the beginning of this article are, Malta, which has a measure of self-government, including a Legislature of

Two Chambers for purely local affairs; Sarawak, which is an independent native state under a white Rajah and a Council-of-State; Zanzibar, which is ruled by a Sultan with a British Resident and other officials in charge of the administrative services; and Nigeria, which is a Crown Colony and Protectorate but has, in addition to a Governor-General, a Legislative Council (for the Colony and Southern Provinces of the Protectorate). This Council consists of 26 official members, four elected members, and 14 nominated unofficial members.

The Malay Peninsula is divided into a British Colony, a Federation of four Protected Native States, and five Independent Native States under British suzerainty. The Colony of the Straits Settlements comprises Singapore, Penang, and Province Wellesley, Malacca and the Dindings. The Colony's affairs are presided over by a Governor, who



Photo, British North Borneo Co.

IN THE GARDENS OF GOVERNMENT HOUSE, SANDAKAN, BRITISH NORTH BORNEO

is also High Commissioner for the Native States, acting in that capacity as the medium of control for the Colonial Office in Downing Street. Under the High Commissioner, whose headquarters are at Singapore, the affairs of the Federated Malay States (Perak, Selangor, Negri Sembilan and Pahang) are directed by the Chief Secretary, residing at the Federal capital, Kuala Lumpur, in Selangor. A Federal Council, comprising the native rulers and their British advisers, as well as representatives of the planting and mining interests and the general community, sits periodically to pass enactments and to

consider the Budget. In each of the five Native States, there is a British Resident to aid the Sultan in the administration of affairs, and in each State there is a State Council, composed of officials and unofficial representatives of the leading industries. In Johore there is a British official known as the General Adviser, and in Kelantan, Kedah, Perlis and Trengganu, British officials designated as Advisers. These officials are members of the Federated Malay States Civil Service, and their advice is followed by the native rulers.



BRITISH GUIANA

ENGLAND'S only colony on the South American mainland is British Guiana, which includes the historic settlements of Demerara, Berbice and Essequibo. It has an estimated area of 90,277 square miles, with a coast line of 320 miles, and a population of about 300,000, exclusive of widely scattered Indian families in the interior. It is situated on the north-east coast of South America, and is bounded on the south by Brazil, on the east by Dutch Guiana, and on the west by Venezuela. The Atlantic Ocean washes the north-east coast. There are, in this colony, 127,000 East Indian immigrants.

ENGLAND IN SOUTH AMERICA.

The history of this colony is closely interwoven with that of the West Indies, and has been varied in the extreme. It was settled by the Dutch in 1580, afterwards passing under the jurisdiction of the Dutch West India Company, by whom it was held for considerably over 100 years. The three coast settlements—Demerara, Berbice, and Essequibo—were first taken by the English in 1781, but were recaptured by the French in the following year, only, however, again to fall to British arms in 1796.

By the Peace of Amiens these settlements were once again given back to the Dutch, but, with the renewal of the war of 1803, again became the object of conquest and were finally ceded to Great Britain in 1814, and seventeen years later united as a Crown Colony under the name of *British Guiana*.

The vast interior of this colony was left for many years totally unexplored; and the frontiers with Dutch Guiana on the east, Venezuela on the west, and Brazil on the

south, were quite undetermined. The *definite lines* have, however, now been drawn, but by far the largest portion of this territory still remains quite unexploited, owing chiefly to lack of capital and labour.

GEORGETOWN.

The capital and chief port is Georgetown, in the county of Demerara, which has a population of about 58,000, and is one of the most modern cities in this portion of the sub-continent. There are several fine public buildings, including English and Roman Catholic Cathedrals, as well as good hotels and clubs. Georgetown possesses a telephone system, and is proud of its electric trams and its motor 'bus service, which link up the capital with some of the suburban villages and surrounding estates. There is a good service of steamers and launches connecting the Demerara and Essequibo Rivers, and railways running east and west along the coast, with a branch line running inland into the heart of the primeval forest. One of the lines runs to Greenwich Park, which is, perhaps, one of the finest tropical gardens in South America. The most favoured promenade of the inhabitants of Georgetown is, however, the Sea Wall; and Starbroek market is a famous rendezvous for collectors of curios.

The town of second importance in British Guiana is New Amsterdam, situated in the original settlement of Berbice. There are several other small townships and villages scattered over the low-lying coast lands, which, however, are as yet of little economic importance.



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

THE LAST REMAINS OF KY&OVERAL

This was originally an early Dutch settlement, founded in 1613, at the junction of the Cuyuni and Mazaruni Rivers

CLIMATE.

Although tropical, the climate of this large and highly fertile colony is not nearly as unhealthy for Europeans as it was at one time, owing, in the populous centres, to improved sanitation, in the more remote regions to the clearance of primeval forest, and to the discoveries in the methods of treating tropical diseases. The yellow fever, which was the scourge of the country during the Dutch occupation, has now practically disappeared, a few isolated cases sometimes occurring, but mostly among the native population. Malaria, which may be termed

Europeans. Quarantinable diseases have been absent for many years. The principal diseases are malaria, chest and bowel-complaints. These are preventable by easy methods, and form no menace to those who live rationally and carefully. It must be borne in mind that acclimatisation is essential to those who intend to seek a living in the forests and in the mines, and they must not hope to escape from climatic influences if they attempt to reside in the bush before they have accustomed themselves to the difference of temperature and of life which obtains in a tropical country, as compared



INDIAN INSCRIPTION ON A ROCK AT WARAPUTA FALLS, ESSEQUIBO RIVER

the influenza of the tropics, is prevalent during certain months, but it would be almost impossible to name a single tropical country, with luxuriant vegetation and a heavy rainfall, where this malady is unknown. The temperature ranges from 78 deg. to 89 deg. F. The north-east trade wind is constant from January to April and from October to December. The rainfall ranges from 75 to 130 in. per annum, earthquakes and violent thunderstorms are of rare occurrence, and the colony is not within the region of hurricanes. The sanitary arrangements of the towns and villages are in general primitive, save in the larger premises occupied by

with the British Isles. The colony generally is well provided with qualified medical practitioners, hospitals and dispensaries. On the coast and in the more thickly populated parts of the interior medical practitioners, appointed by the Government, are placed in defined districts. On the principal rivers and in the less thickly populated parts qualified Government dispensers are provided.

There are two dry seasons, one lasting from the middle of February to the end of April, and the other from the middle of August to the end of November. Heavy rains are often experienced during the intervening months. The treatment of stagnant

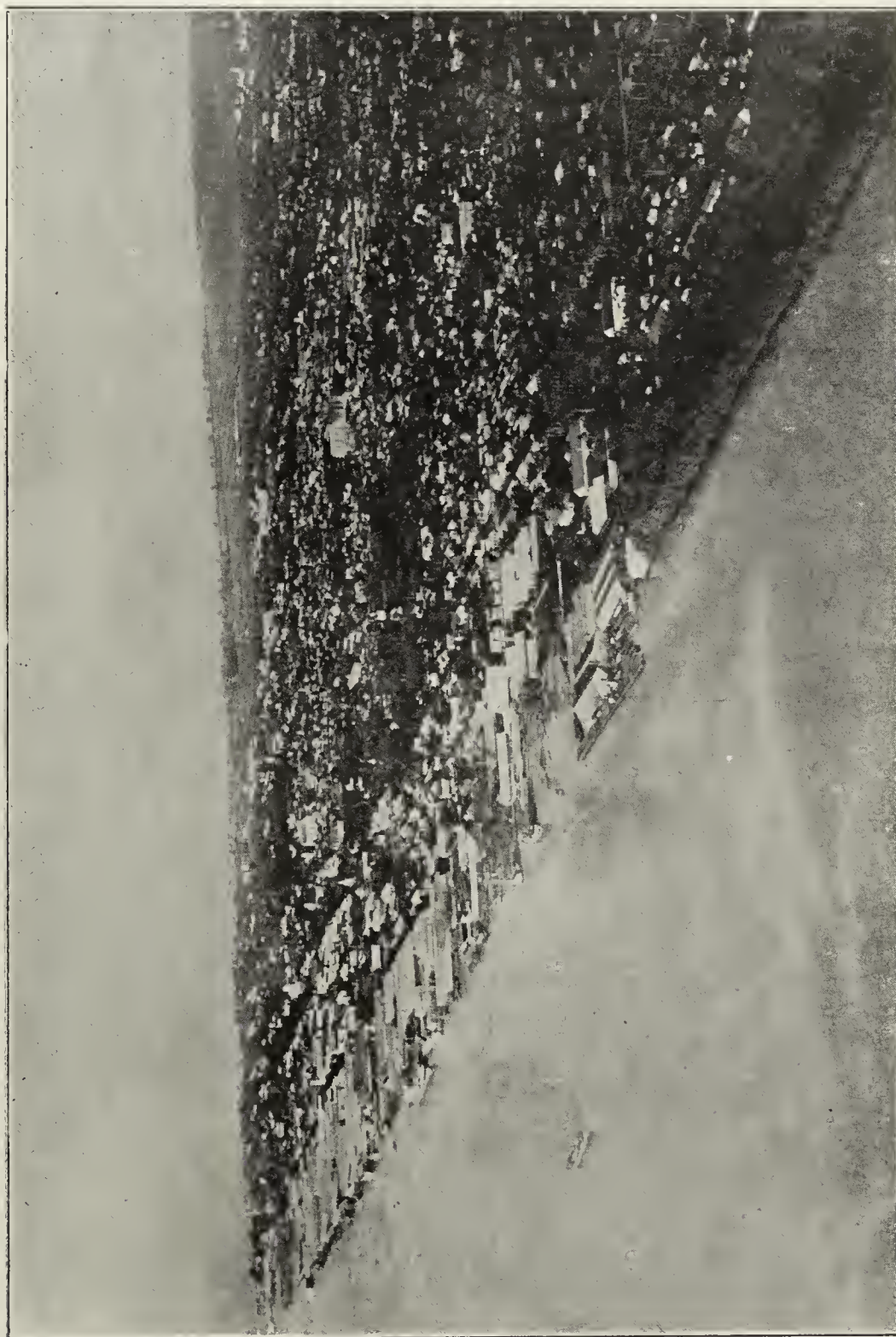


Photo by kind permission of the

GEORGETOWN, CAPITAL OF BRITISH GUIANA
This photograph was taken from an altitude of 1,000 feet

West India Committee

pools of water in the vicinity of towns with petroleum, and the consequent wholesale destruction of the mosquito, has greatly diminished malarial fever.

TOPOGRAPHY AND INDUSTRIES.

Guiana may be described as essentially a land of forest and stream. Six large rivers empty themselves into the Atlantic Ocean, whilst numerous others, varying in size and volume from mighty streams to small creeks, intersect the interior. Sugar cultivation is confined to the fringe of coast lands and to the lower banks of the main rivers. Here the cane-fields and plantations have been reclaimed from the swamp by a laborious and costly process known as "empoldering," which means that the mud-flats have been secured for cultivation by dams and trenches, the former being built to keep out the sea and river floods, and the latter being dug to drain the rescued acres.

The arable portions of the estates not under sugar cane are occupied with rice and ground provisions. On the pasture lands a large number of cattle are raised.

There is a constant expenditure entailed therefore on the proprietors of these estates in keeping up their defences against the incursion of salt and brackish water, which is fatal to cultivation, and in clearing the trenches, which, on account of the level nature of the land are of no great depth, from mud and vegetable débris.

Over 7,000,000 acres of the easily accessible lands in the coastal regions are available for agricultural purposes. Approximately 1,000,000 acres have already been disposed of by the Government, and therefore there remain unalienated by the Crown 6,000,000 acres.

There are also 3,000,000 acres of savannah lands in the coastal region, of which about half are fertile and well adapted for pastoral



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

GEORGETOWN: THE CATHEDRAL, MUSEUM AND TOWN HALL



Photo by kind permission of the

AN AVENUE OF ROYAL PALMS, GEORGETOWN

West India Committee

pursuits, while the other half consist of shallows, lakes and undulating sandy plains. There are 36,000,000 acres of forest-covered, hilly and rolling lands in the interior which are in many parts well suited for Para rubber cultivation and that of other tropical products. By far the greater part of the savannahs in the hinterland, which are estimated at 3,000,000 acres, is suitable for pasturage.

The cultivation of rice has increased considerably during recent years, and it has now

the Colony. Balata has been found to grow wild in the forests, and the collection of it is rapidly progressing.

Cattle-raising is likely to become an important industry, both on the front lands of the coastal region and on the extensive savannahs in the interior of the Colony. On the savannahs empoldering is not required, but, until means of communication by road and rail shall have been opened, upland settlers cannot look for any success there in agricul-



Photo, J. Williams

By kind permission of the West India Committee

PUBLIC BUILDINGS, GEORGETOWN

become an important industry. Over 33,000 acres are under this cereal with an estimated yield of 1,000,000 bags (120 lb.) of paddy, and a fairly large export trade is carried on with the West Indian Islands.

Increased attention is being given to the cultivation of cacao, coffee, rubber, limes, and coco-nuts. There are large areas of the Colony eminently suited to the cultivation of these tropical crops, and experimental stations are being established, under the Board of Agriculture, in various districts of

ture or cattle-breeding on a large scale, and they must confine themselves to fields in the more accessible portions of the Colony, securing them by the methods indicated above.

The same cause also affects the timber industry, which is at present limited to those regions lying in close proximity to the lower stretches of the main rivers, overland transport of heavy logs of hardwood being difficult and costly, whilst the frequency of cataracts and rapids in the upper portions

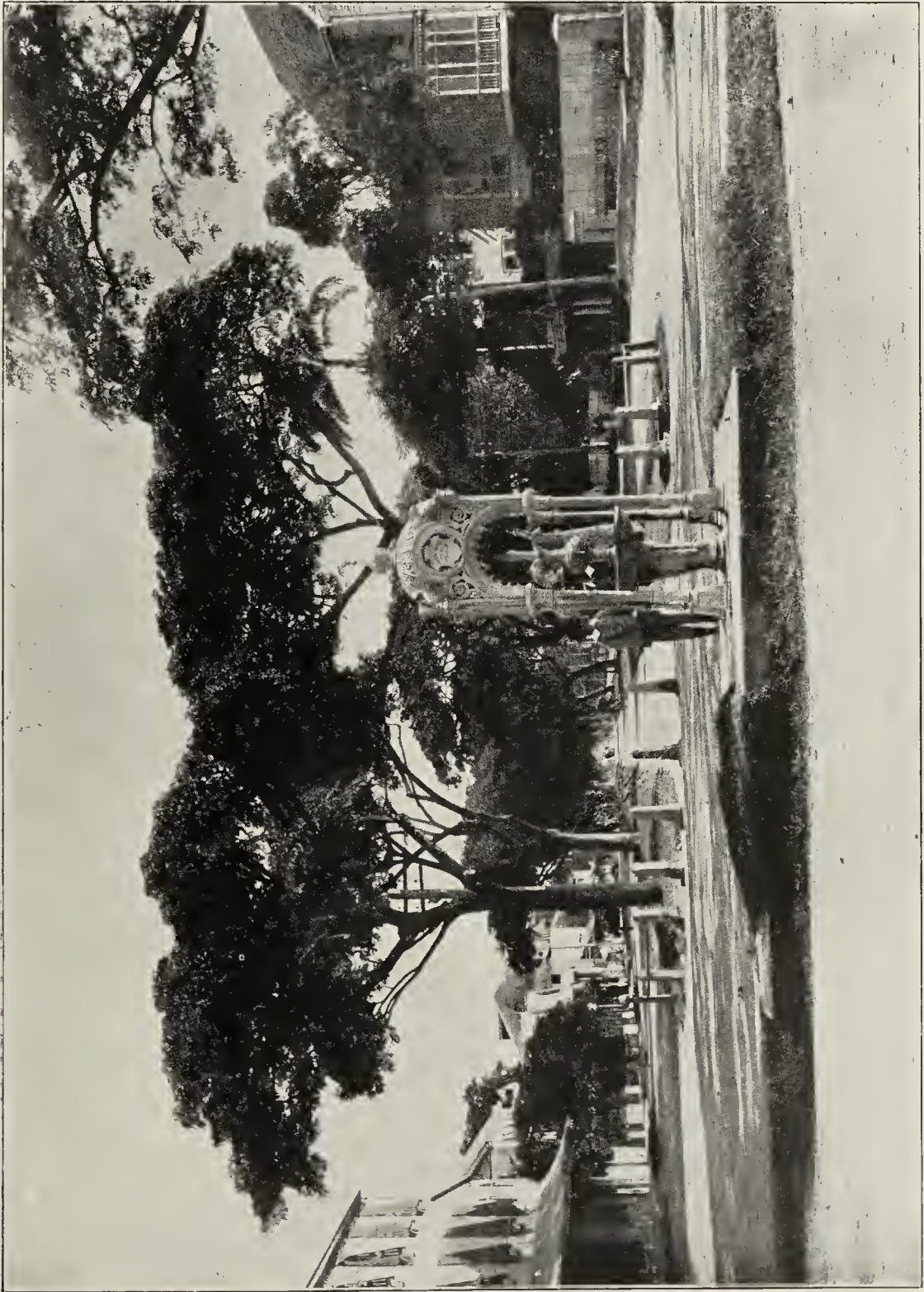


Photo by kind permission of the

ONE OF THE MAIN STREETS OF GEORGETOWN

[West India Committee

of the main waterways renders them unsuitable for bringing down the timber. It is estimated that an area of about 10,000 square miles is readily accessible and commercially workable for timber. This area is confined to the country extending from the sea-coast between the large rivers as far as their first cataracts and rapids, where timber can be profitably hauled overland for removal by water carriage.

The value of railway communication in this connection has been fully exemplified in the opening of a short line between the Demerara and Essequibo Rivers, whereby some of the worst cataracts and rapids on the latter are avoided, and forests previously untouched have become accessible to the woodman, yielding an increased output of marketable hardwood.

Sugar has for many years been the principal product of the Colony, and that the industry should have survived a prolonged

struggle against the adverse conditions of outside competition, the almost overwhelming force of continental bounties, and the perennial difficulties of an insufficient labour supply, is striking evidence of the productiveness of the soil and the courageous tenacity of those who own it. But it must not be imagined that the country is capable of producing nothing else but the sugar-cane. The land will yield almost any recognised tropical vegetable and fruit, and some of European origin can be, and are, successfully cultivated. All the products known locally as "provisions," in which are included yam, cassava, tannia, sweet potato, arrowroot, plantains, and maize or Indian corn, grow freely. To these may be added the banana, the coffee berry, and the cocoa pod; the vanilla, and the Tonkin bean; bitter, sweet, and mandarin varieties of the orange; limes and lemons, in profusion; all the numerous family of the mango, the breadfruit and the



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee
IN THE BOTANICAL GARDENS, GEORGETOWN

tamarind ; the avocado pear and the pineapple ; rice, tobacco, and the coco-nut, guins, and rubber, and a long list of forest timbers, such as mora, bullet-tree, crab-wood, red cedar, purple-heart, letter-wood, and the world-renowned greenheart.

average in value £2,780,000 a year, of which £1,300,000 come from the British Isles.

MINING.

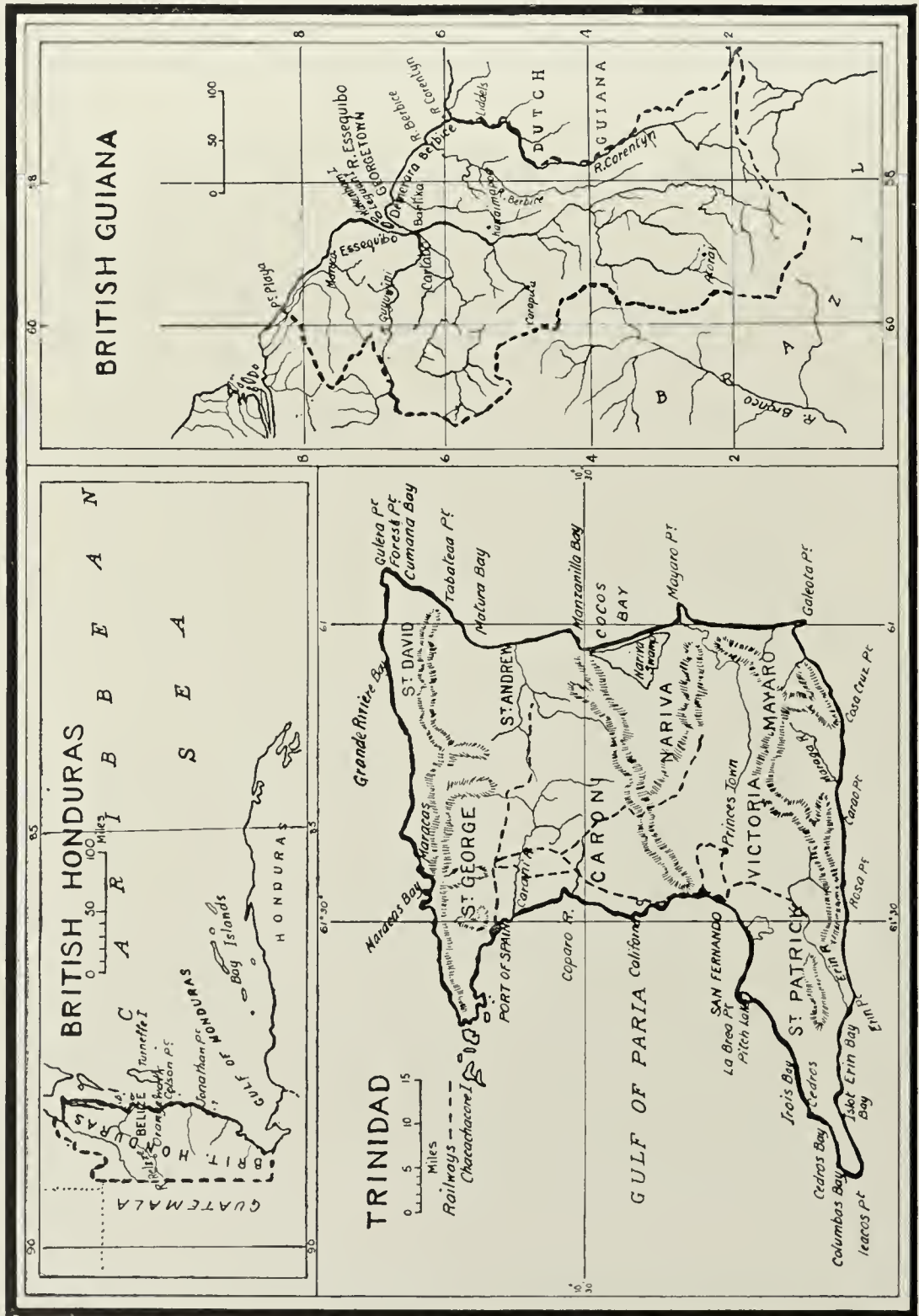
Although gold and diamond mining has been carried on in Guiana since the Spanish



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee
IN THE GUIANA FOREST

The average annual value of the export of sugar is £1,300,000, and rum, diamonds, timber, balata, and rice cause the approximate average value of all the domestic exports to reach £2,600,000. The imports

dominion, this industry still awaits a proper development. There is no doubt that a large portion of the interior contains untried fields, which, "under systematic and modern methods of manipulation, would



yield a rich return to the man of energy and endurance." The total output of gold as recorded in the Department of Lands and Mines from 1884 to January, 1920, was

for working the diamondiferous gravel have been granted. From 1901 to 1930 diamonds to the value of about £1,000,000 have been found.

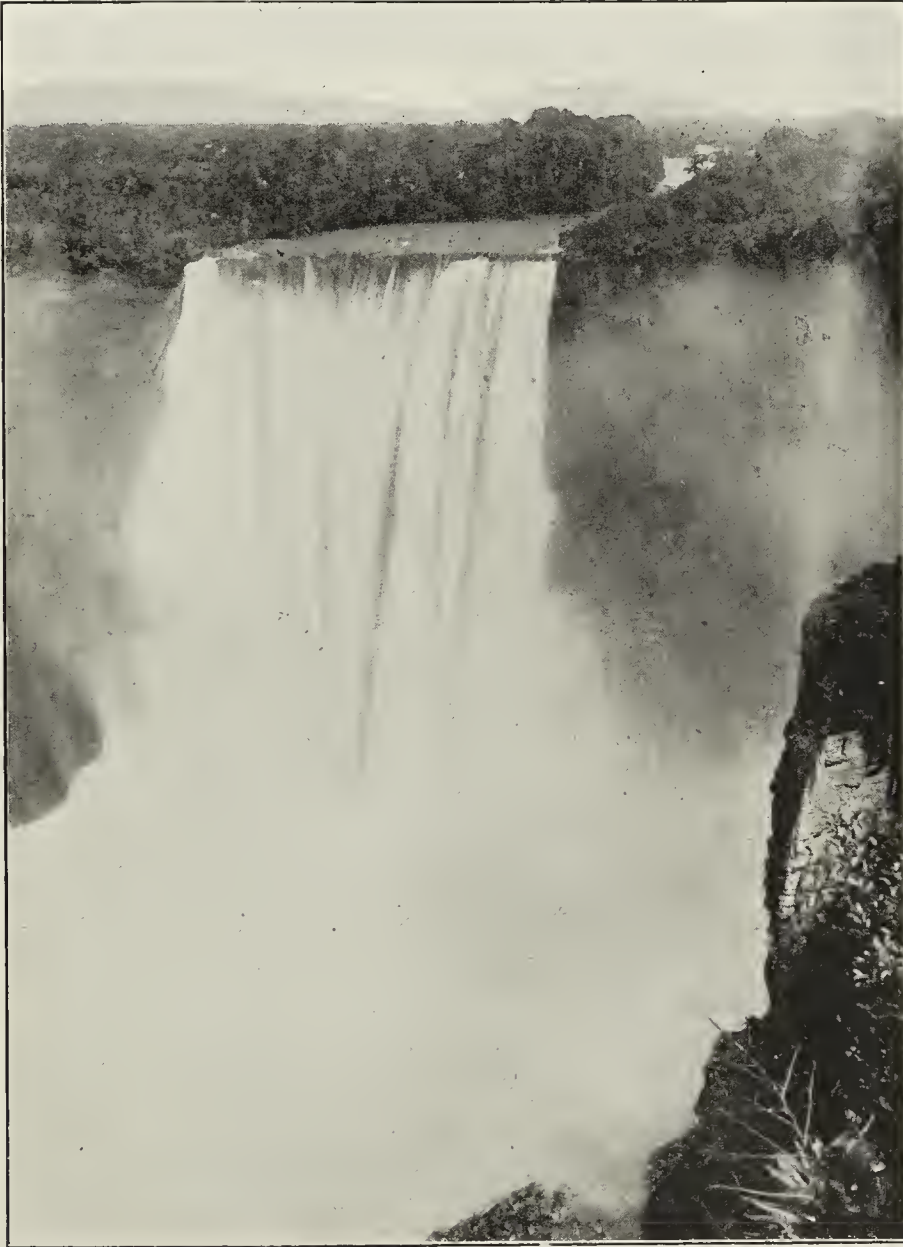


Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

THE KAIETEUR FALLS, POTARO RIVER

These falls are 741 feet deep and 400 feet wide

valued at £9,500,000. Since these figures were issued the mining industry generally has made considerable progress. Diamonds of fair size and good quality are being found in the districts through which the Mazaruni and Cuyuni Rivers run, and large concessions

THE INTERIOR.

The interior of Guiana is as wild and little known as any enthusiastic explorer could wish. Here are thousands of square miles of virgin forest, Carib and Arawak Indians, and such beasts as the puma, jaguar, tapir, and



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

VIEW OF THE KAIETEUR GORGE FROM THE TOP OF THE FALLS

tiger cat. In the thick undergrowth of the forest glades and in the swampy pampas lurk reptiles of great variety, from the anaconda to the lizard and centipede.*

It is, however, in these lonely forests and rivers that the great dormant wealth of Guiana lies. The streams contain gold and diamonds, and the forests valuable woods, essences, medicinal plants, balata (inferior rubber), gutta-percha and fine rubber. Diamond mining is greatly on the increase.

which is as great as it was in the days of Waterton. Here is how the great explorer and naturalist describes the unchanging forest and rivers in this still unexploited country.

"After being night and day in the forest impervious to the sun and moon's rays, the sudden transition to light has a fine heart-cheering effect. Welcome as a lost friend, the solar beam makes the frame rejoice, and with it a thousand enlivening thoughts rush



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

THE VICTORIA REGIA LILY ON A RIVER IN BRITISH GUIANA

The saucer-like leaves of these water flowers are capable of supporting the weight of a child

A voyage down the Essequibo River into the heart of Equatorial America forms an interesting expedition, but one only to be undertaken by experienced travellers who have plenty of time in which to accomplish the journey. Travelling by canoe on these rapid-blocked rivers, and cutting a way through the great Guiana forests, encumbered with several months' food supply, is not an enterprise to be lightly undertaken; but the scenery and chances for scientific research well repay for the difficulty of the task,

at once on the soul, and disperse, as a vapour, every sad and sorrowful idea, which the deep gloom had helped to collect there. When coming out of the woods, you see the western bank of the Essequibo before you, low and flat. Here the river is two-thirds as broad as the Demerara at Starbroek.

"To the northward there is a hill higher than any in the Demerara; and in the south-south-west quarter a mountain. It is far away, and appears like a bluish cloud on the horizon. There is not the least opening on

* For an account of exploration in the great forests of Amazonia and Guiana see "Among Wild Tribes of the Amazons," by Charles W. Domville-Fife

either side. Hills, valleys and lowlands are all linked together by a chain of forest. Ascend the highest mountain, climb the loftiest tree, as far as the eye can extend, whichever way it directs itself, all is luxuriant and unbroken forest."

The few Indians who dwell in this vast forest region, mostly along the banks of the rivers, are of the same race that inhabit the forests of Colombia, Peru, and Brazil. Indeed, these countries are covered with but a continuation of the same primeval forest. They depend upon the poisoned arrow and the blowpipe for their sustenance. A few of the Carib tribes have been cannibals in the present generation, but the majority are Arawaks. Waterton gives the following interesting account of how these natives prepare their famous wourali poison, which kills man, animal or bird, within twenty minutes after the arrow wounds them, without in any way poisoning the flesh or rendering it unfit for food.

"A day or two before the Macoushi Indian prepares his poison, he goes into the forest in quest of the ingredients. A vine grows in these wilds, which is called *wourali*. It is from this the poison takes its name, and it is the principal ingredient. When he has procured enough of this, he digs up a root of a very bitter taste, ties them together, and then looks about for two kinds of bulbous plants, which contain a green and glutinous juice. He fills a little quack, which he carries on his back, with the stalks of these; and, lastly, ranges up and down till he finds two species of ants. One of them is very large and black, and so venomous that its sting produces a fever; it is most commonly to be met with on the ground. The other is a little red ant, which stings like a nettle, and generally has its nest under the leaf of a shrub. After obtaining these he has no more need to range the forest.

"A quantity of the strongest Indian pepper is used; but this he has already planted round his hut. The pounded fangs of the labarri snake, and those of the counacouchi, are likewise added. These he commonly has in store; for when he kills a snake, he generally extracts the fangs, and keeps them by him.

"Having thus found the necessary ingredients, he scrapes the wourali vine and bitter root into thin shavings, and puts them

into a kind of colander made of leaves; this he holds over an earthen pot, and pours water on the shavings: the liquor which comes through has the appearance of coffee. When a sufficient quantity has been procured, the shavings are thrown aside. He then bruises the bulbous stalks and squeezes a proportionate quantity of their juice through his hands into the pot. Lastly, the snakes' fangs, ants and pepper are bruised and thrown into it. It is then placed on a slow fire, and, as it boils, more of the juice of the wourail is added, according as it may be found necessary, and the scum is taken off with a leaf: it remains on the fire till reduced to a thick syrup of a deep brown colour. As soon as it has arrived at this state, a few arrows are poisoned with it to try its strength. If it answers the expectations, it is poured out into a calabash, or little pot of Indian manufacture, which is carefully covered with a couple of leaves, and over them a piece of deer's skin, tied round with a cord. They keep it in the most dry part of the hut; and from time to time suspend it over the fire to counteract the effect of dampness."

On the Brazilian frontier, in the extreme south of British Guiana, is the famous table mountain of Roraima, which forms the "corner-stone" of the divide between Brazil, Guiana and Venezuela. The summit of this huge, flat-topped mountain was first reached by an Englishman, who penetrated into the heart of unknown American Equatoria and scaled the almost perpendicular side of this immense rock.

Among the principal places of interest in this Colony, accessible to the ordinary traveller, are the Tumatumari Rapids. This journey is best accomplished by launch from Rockstone on the Essequibo. The scene as the little vessel proceeds up stream, is one of great tropical beauty, amid the silences of an equatorial forest. The broad river, shining like a bar of burnished gold in the glaring sunlight, winds between banks covered with luxuriant vegetation. Not the faintest breeze stirs the glass-like surface of the water, and the intense heat seems to draw the life-blood from all around as it has already drawn the dews of early morning. A slight mist hangs like a veil over the distant vegetation, which stretches away in a tangled sea of foliage until lost in the hot haze.



ON THE ESSEQUIBO RIVER



Photos by kind permission of the West India Committee
A BALATA EXPEDITION ARRIVING AT ROCKSTONE, ON THE ESSEQUIBO RIVER, FROM THE
SEMI-EXPLORED INTERIOR



Photo, C. W. Anderson

By kind permission of the West India Committee

AN INDIAN PALM-THATCH DWELLING IN THE INTERIOR OF BRITISH GUIANA

No sign of life breaks the monotony of these almost impenetrable forests, but after a few miles have been traversed the bungalows of estate owners may occasionally be seen. Omai and the rapids of the Potaro River have first to be passed, and the passage through these rushing waters is at times very exciting.

The voyage from Rockstone to Tumatumari occupies about twelve hours by launch and two days by canoe, but provision must be made to stay the night at the rapids. The scene by moonlight is even more beautiful than in the glare of the sun. The copper-coloured moon diffuses a warm yellow light which causes the foaming river to sparkle and gleam as it rushes on through the intense blackness of the forest. Tall ghostly palms wave gently in the sighing breeze of early evening, which dies away as the night grows older and the moon rises higher in the starry

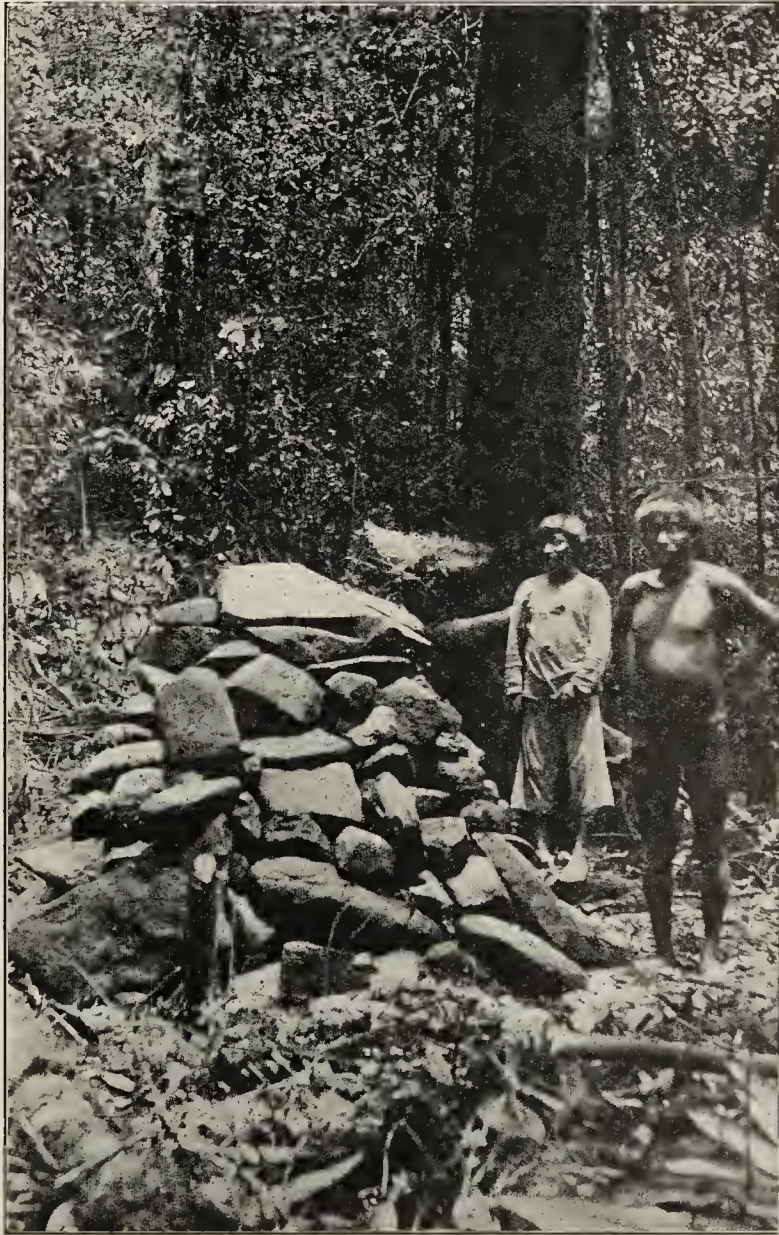
sky. Save for the gentle hum of insects and the distant roar of the rapids, not a sound breaks the stillness of the forest glades.

A traveller who enters these forest-covered wastes for the first time will experience an indescribable feeling of loneliness, and a realisation, born of the silence, of the vast solitary tracts with which he is surrounded. This feeling of melancholy soon passes, however, and languor takes its place. At night in these almost limitless forests, mind and body are in complete rest (when one is well wrapped in a mosquito net). With dawn comes a change of scene, all is light and life. The bright plumage of the birds in the lofty trees, the butterflies, the damp green of the luxuriant growth, and the bright golden gleam of the rising sun, seem to awaken life and energy, and when the sun sets again the traveller is back once more in the haunts of men.

KAIETEUR FALLS.

The Kaieteur Falls, on the Upper Potaro River—a tributary of the Essequibo—are among the most wonderful in the world. The water drops 882 ft., of which depth 741

transport is first by steamer from the capital to Wismar, then by railway to Rockstone, launch to Tumatumari (Rest House), launch to Potaro Landing, on foot to Kangaruma, and boat or canoe to Tukait,



Photo, C. W. Anderson

By kind permission of the West India Committee

**AN INDIAN GRAVE IN THE DEPTHS OF THE
GREAT FOREST**

feet is over a sheer precipice. These falls rank with those of Niagara, the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi and those of Iguazu. They can be reached from Georgetown in about nine or ten days. The means of

from which point the climb to the top of the falls is made.

The famous explorer and administrator, Sir Everard Im Thurn, gives the following description of these wonderful falls and their

surroundings.—“ If the whole valley of the Potaro is fairyland, then the Kaieteur Ravine is the penetralia of fairyland. Here, owing to the moisture-collecting nature of the sandstone rock, the green of the plants would seem yet greener and more varied. Under the thick shades were countless streamlets trickling over little ledges of rock among pigmy forests of filmy ferns and mosses. The small feather-like tufts of these ferns, each formed of half-transparent fronds of a dark, cool-looking green colour, were exquisite. Larger ferns, with a crowd of Ariods, orchids, and other plants, covered the rocks between these streams in new and marvellous luxuriance. Two curious forms of leafless white-stalked parasitic gentians (*Voyria*), one yellow, the other white, were especially noticeable. On the other side rose the tall granite cliffs, which form the sides of the ravine; the sandstone rock, of which they are part, extends in an unbroken piece from this to Roriamia. The appearance of their perpendicular, tree-crowned walls, broken here and there by gaps, recalls the pictures of that mountain. Far up on the faces of the cliffs were ledges, on which grew a few green plants. Some idea of the size of these cliffs may be drawn from the fact that the field-glasses showed these plants to be tall forest trees. After two hours' climb through the forest we came out on the Savannah from which the Kaieteur falls.

“ Crossing the Savannah we soon reached the Kaieteur cliffs. 750 feet below, encircled in black boulders, lay a great pool, into which the columns of white water thundered from by my side. Behind the Fall, through the thinnest parts of the veil of foam and mist, a great black cavern made the white of the water look yet more white.”

RAILWAYS AND TELEGRAPHS.

There are 98 miles of railway in British Guiana. The main line, which has a length of 60 miles, runs east from Georgetown, the capital, to Rossignol, near New Amsterdam. There is also a line 15 miles long, from Vreedenhooop to Greenwich Park on the west coast of Demerara, and another line 18½ miles in length from Wismar to Rockstone, connecting the Demerara and Essequibo Rivers, which greatly facilitates the journey to the rich gold districts of the Potaro and Upper Essequibo. Steamers ply daily up and down the Demerara River, and twice a week on the Berbice River. The telegraphic net has a total length of about 600 miles and the telephone system about 2,700 miles, but the latter is confined almost entirely to the more populous coastal region around Georgetown.

GOVERNMENT.

British Guiana is administered by a Governor and a Court of Policy, consisting of fifteen official and unofficial members; but the Governor holds the right of veto on any measure at any time. There is also a Combined Court, made up of the Court of Policy and a few additional financial members. Its function consists primarily in the levying of taxes. In addition to these an Executive Council exercises active Legislative and Administrative control. The revenue averages just over £1,000,000 per annum, and the expenditure £1,150,000. There is a Public Debt of about £3,500,000, one-third of which has been created in order to finance city improvements and coastal drainage and irrigation. The aboriginal Indians number about 10,000, and belong principally to the Arawak, Acawoi, Carib and Warau tribes. They are occupied largely in fishing, hunting and raising crops of cassava.

BRITISH HONDURAS

THIS Colony, which is sometimes called Belize, is situated on the eastern shore of the Yucatan Peninsula, on the Isthmus of Central America, and faces the Bay of Honduras. It has an area of about 8,595 square miles, being 170 miles long and 68 miles wide. It is the only British possession on the Central American mainland, and its neighbours are Mexico on the north and north-west, and Guatemala on the west and south. The Caribbean Sea and Gulf of Honduras form the eastern frontier.

SPAIN AND THE BUCCANEERS.

In early times this Colony was the headquarters of pirates and freebooters, and, the approach through the coral reefs to the shore being very difficult and dangerous, it was especially suitable as a rendezvous for these "Free Companions." It was first started as a peaceful settlement in the early part of the eighteenth century by a number of adventurous Englishmen. From the first the settlers, among whom were many turbulent spirits, had trouble with the Spaniards living in the adjacent countries. Notwithstanding certain pacific agreements and treaties—in pursuance of which Sir William Burnaby was sent out to the Colony by the British Government and drew up a code of regulations, defining the boundaries and trading rights (called the "Burnaby Code")—the Spaniards attacked the British colonists with

a large force in 1779–80, driving many out of the country and making others prisoners.

In 1783–4 a fresh treaty was signed between the British and Spanish Governments, whereby the former was admitted to have certain trading rights in a specified zone, which, however, was to remain under the sovereignty of the King of Spain. A fresh colony was started by the British, but again, in 1796, this was attacked by a very large force of Spaniards, who, however, were repulsed with heavy losses after only a few days' fighting. By the Anglo-American Convention of 1850 this territory was recognised as a British colony, but undoubtedly the vicissitudes through which it has passed have considerably retarded its development.

British Honduras is administered by a Governor, who has an Executive Council of six members and a Legislative Council of five official and seven unofficial members, to assist him. The population exceeds 49,000, by far the largest portion of whom are negroes, or of mixed blood, and are engaged in the lumber industry. The white population devote themselves principally to commerce and sugar-producing. The United States' gold standard of currency and the British sovereign and half-sovereign are legal tender; besides these the Government of British Honduras has issued (1911) certain paper (dollars), silver and bronze money, and United States notes circulate freely.

BELIZE AND THE HIGHLANDS.

This quiet little town is the chief port and the seat of the Government. It is situated on the coast, and has a population of about 19,000, the largest portion being natives. Among the white residents Scots predominate. The climate is hot and cannot be called healthy, but disease is by no means rampant, and, if the usual precautions necessary in tropical countries to prevent fever and malaria are taken, no fear of more dangerous illness need be felt by European travellers or residents. There are hotels, schools, hospitals, and churches of most denominations.

able numbers; but the chief industry is lumbering in the immense forests, which contain an abundance of mahogany, logwood, *lignum vitæ*, cedar and pine. The export of mahogany alone averages about 14,000,000 superficial feet per annum, logwood over 5,000 tons, and cedar about 50,000 ft.

THE COAST.

On the lowlands of the coast bananas and coco-nuts grow luxuriantly on the various plantations and also wild in the forests. The export of fruit has steadily increased during the last few years, and the average annual



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

BELIZE, CAPITAL OF BRITISH HONDURAS

The shipping annually entering and clearing from this port is 630,100 tons. There is a wireless telegraph station.

The highlands of British Honduras, which are situated some 20 miles inland and occupy the principal portion of the country, are healthy, and the climate is not unlike that of late spring in England.

Much of the 8,595 square miles of territory which compose this colony is covered with primeval forests, intersected on the plateau with sandy plains covered with long wiry grass and dotted with tall pine trees. Here, cattle and sheep may be reared in consider-

shipments are: bananas, 300,000 bunches; and coco-nuts 4,000,000. The area under cultivation is about 60,000 acres.

In the forests cocoa grows wild, and surpasses in flavour that which is cultivated on the rapidly increasing number of plantations. An industry which gives promise of future development is the collection of wild rubber, and the cultivation of these trees.

The coast of British Honduras is hot and damp, and in the almost dark recesses of the forest glades orchids, convolvulus, and a hundred other species of flora intermingle with the many kinds of fern and other growth.



REGATTA DAY ON THE BELIZE RIVER
Native canoes racing



Photos by kind permission of the West India Committee
THE GREAT SOUTHERN PINE RIDGE

The rich brown earth is completely covered with exuberant and moist vegetation. In the clearings, banana plantations and coffee and cocoa estates, with their white-painted bungalows, add to the natural splendour of the tropics.

The low coast land extends from 10 to 20 miles inland, after which a series of ridges leads up to the highlands which have an altitude of about 5,000 ft. On the journey inland by mule, the traveller is transported in a few hours from the hot plains of the coast to the pine forests of the mountain

INDUSTRIES.

The chief industries are mahogany, cedar and logwood cutting, and fruit growing for the markets of the United States. The colony has a fine soil, adapted to many kinds of tropical products, but most of it is covered by primeval forest or bush. It suffers from want of roads, having at present few that are fit for wheel traffic, but this drawback is to a great extent counteracted by excellent river communications, and a railway is in operation in the Stann Creek Valley. Over and above timber the principal products of



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

BLAIR ATHOL, BRITISH HONDURAS

sides. Here the air is cool even during mid-day, and at night an overcoat becomes a necessary article of wearing apparel.

In British Honduras the mean maximum summer temperature is 90 deg. The maximum in one year was 93 deg. in June and the minimum was 60 deg. in January. The rainiest months are generally those from June to November, and the annual rainfall at the chief settlement, Belize, taken on an average of the last ten years, is 86.29 in. The climate from January to April is pleasant. The death-rate is about twenty-two per thousand.

the colony are sugar, rum, and Indian corn, for local consumption, and bananas, coconuts, plantains, rubber, sapodilla gum, tortoise-shell and sponges for export. Cattle-rearing promises well, but the meat at present required for the colony is to a large extent imported from the Central American States.

Education is neither free nor compulsory, but the seventy primary schools are well attended, and there are secondary schools in Belize. The average annual revenue is approximately £221,000 and the expenditure £200,000. The Public Debt and Advances



LOGGING ON THE BELIZE RIVER



Photos by kind permission of the West India Committee
TRANSPORT DIFFICULTIES IN THE INTERIOR OF BRITISH HONDURAS



Photo by kind permission of the West India Committee

CAYO, BRITISH HONDURAS

amount to about £300,000. The average value of the exports is £790,000, and of the imports £900,000 a year. The imports from the United Kingdom account for £170,000 per annum, and the exports to the United Kingdom for only £50,000.*

* For map of British Honduras, see *Guiana*.



IMPERIAL CONFERENCES

THE origin of the Imperial Conference may be found in the meeting of the Prime Ministers of the Self-Governing Dominions in London while representing their respective countries at the Jubilee celebrations of Her Majesty Queen Victoria in 1887, although it was not until ten years later that a similar meeting again took place. Next, came the *Colonial Conference* of 1902, at which the permanency of the meetings was recorded. Another assembly took place in 1907, at which the title of "Colonial Conference" was changed to "Imperial Conference." Previous to this, the Secretary of State for the Colonies had presided, but, with the increasing importance of these *truly* Imperial assemblies and the change of the title, the Presidency was assumed by the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, with the Secretary of State for the Colonies as Chairman. The first "Imperial Conference" took place in 1911. These assemblies have so grown in importance and popularity that they are now looked upon as meetings of "the Cabinet of the British Empire."

The outbreak of the Great European War temporarily changed the character of these constructive meetings. In 1917-18 it became an Imperial War Conference, and, owing to the great pressure of work on the Prime Minister of the United Kingdom, it was held under the Chairmanship of the Secretary of State for the Colonies. Then came the great Victory, the Peace Conference (at which the Dominions were represented) and, in 1921, the Conference of the Empire's Premiers, at which matters of general interest to the British Commonwealth as a whole, in view of the changed condition of the world, both political and economic, were fully and freely discussed.

This was followed by the Economic Conference in 1923, at which the acceptance was secured of the general principles : (1) that Empire development should be pressed by every means in order that additional markets may, in the future, be provided for British manufactures ; (2) that a constantly increasing flow of migrants from Britain depends on the provision of the necessary money for that development ; (3) that the most effective and cheapest methods of transport and communication are imperative ; and (4) that an ever-improving organisation of production and distribution must be devised.*

The Economic Conference was followed, almost immediately, by an Imperial Conference, at which the general defence of the Empire, new markets, migration and preferential tariffs were the principal questions discussed. In 1930 there was another Conference, at which the advisability of completing the Singapore Naval Base and Imperial tariff questions were among the important subjects discussed.

The deliberations at all the Imperial Conferences are, however, secret, and no account of the transactions is published in the press or officially. Only *truly* Imperial questions are discussed, which are mostly of a *constructive* nature. The Imperial Conference is composed of : The Prime Minister of the United Kingdom (President) ; the Secretary of State for Dominion Affairs (Chairman in the absence of the Prime Minister) ; the Prime Minister and other Ministers of the Dominions of Canada, the Commonwealth of Australia, the Dominion of New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, Newfoundland, the Irish Free State and the Indian Empire (Secretary of State and Indian Representatives). There is an Official Secretary and two Assistant Secretaries.

* *Vide* Australian Prime Minister in a communication to the Press of the Commonwealth.

IMPERIAL INSTITUTE

THE Imperial Institute was founded on the initiative of King Edward VII when Prince of Wales, as the Empire Memorial of the Jubilee of Queen Victoria, by whom it was opened in May, 1893. Its principal object is to promote the commercial and industrial utilisation of the raw materials of the Empire by systematic action in several directions, including the chemical and technical investigation of raw materials; the supply of information relating to such materials; and the maintenance of comprehensive exhibits illustrating the natural resources of all the countries of the Empire overseas. The work is organised in three main departments, viz., the Scientific and Technical Department, the Technical Information Bureau and the Public Exhibition Galleries, corresponding with the above-mentioned subjects.

Owing to a resolution passed at the Imperial Economic Conference in 1923, the Imperial Institute was amalgamated with the Imperial Mineral Resources Bureau, and, in 1925, the control was transferred to the Parliamentary Secretary of the Department of Overseas Trade and a Board of Governors. One of its principal objects is the promotion of inter-Imperial trade in raw materials.

SCIENTIFIC AND TECHNICAL DEPARTMENT.

This Department possesses large and well-equipped laboratories in which raw materials from all parts of the Empire are investigated in order to determine their possible uses in industry. Special laboratories have been established for the examination of timber, rubber, cement, and ceramic materials, and complete technical trials of these materials

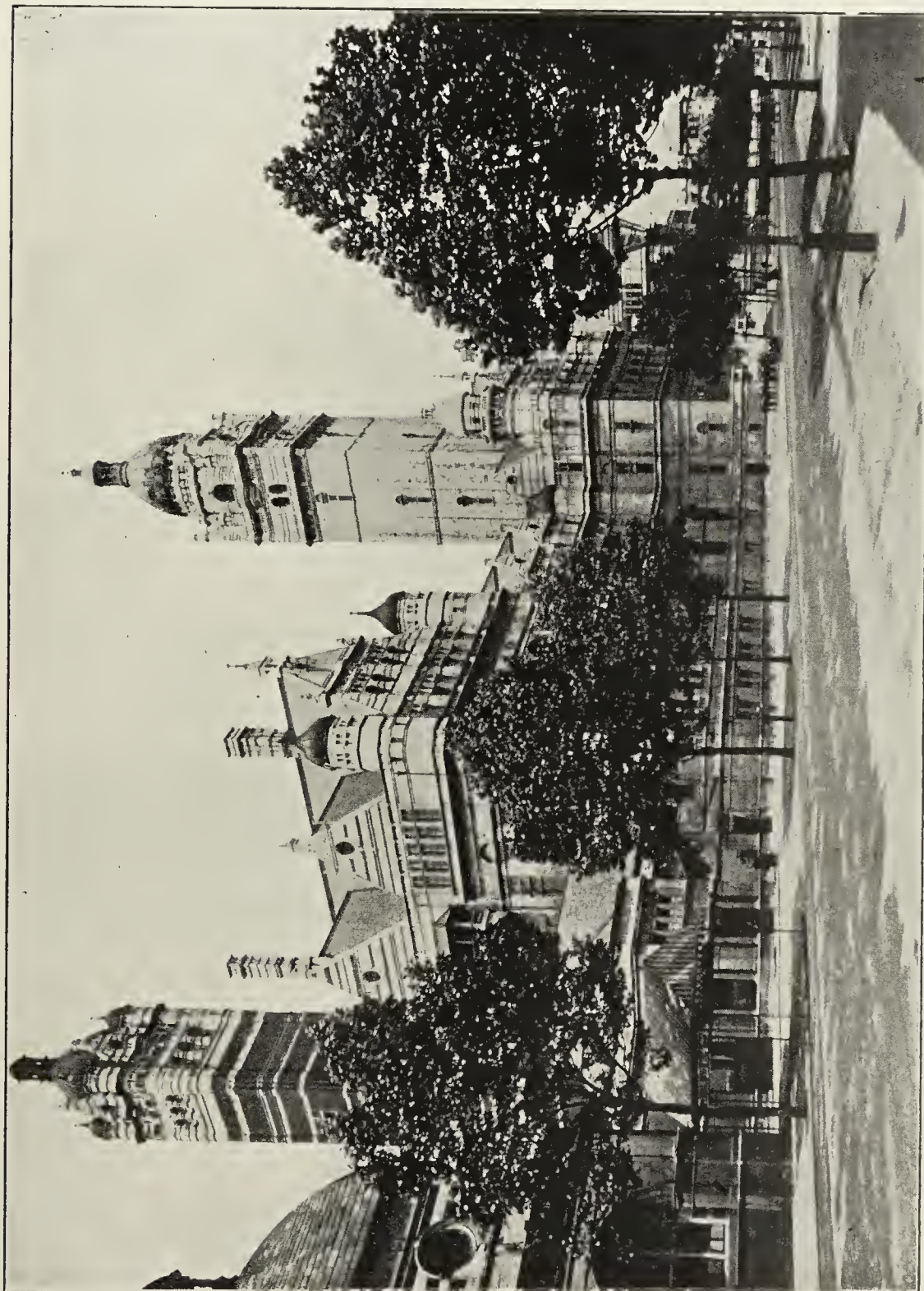
can be carried out. A number of Technical Advisory Committees, including representatives of the trades or industries concerned with important groups of raw materials such as timber, rubber, silk and minerals co-operate in this work, and also assist by advising as to the possibility of utilising the materials examined and by suggesting subjects for investigation. The Institute is also in close touch with manufacturers and users of raw materials in this country, and is thus able to arrange large-scale trials of promising materials when necessary, and to obtain trial orders which may lead to the establishment of an export trade from the country of origin.

In most cases the materials examined are received from the Agricultural, Forestry, Mines and other Technical Departments in the Dominions, Colonies and India, the agricultural products including those indigenous to the country and crops grown experimentally with a view to their introduction for extended cultivation. Special analyses and investigations are also undertaken for firms or private persons in any part of the Empire on payment of appropriate fees. Application for such investigations should be made, in writing, to the Director.

For the convenience of enquirers, the Department maintains a Reference Sample Room in which are arranged samples of the principal raw materials investigated and valued commercially during recent years, and regarding which full information can be supplied.

TECHNICAL INFORMATION BUREAU.

This forms the Intelligence Department of the Institute, and is responsible for dealing with enquiries for technical and commercial



THE IMPERIAL INSTITUTE, SOUTH KENSINGTON, LONDON

information respecting the production, utilisation and trade in the raw materials of the Empire.

The work of the Bureau is carried on in co-operation with the Scientific and Technical Department and with the Public Exhibition Galleries, from which, when necessary, samples of products forming the subjects of enquiries are obtained. The Bureau is in communication with companies, firms, trade

well as from manufacturers, merchants and others in this country; while numbers of visitors to the Institute call to make specific verbal enquiries or to discuss special questions. Many of the enquiries from overseas have reference to the marketing of produce, while merchants and others in this country desire information as to supplies of raw materials from Empire sources. Another important section comprises re-



THE IMPERIAL INSTITUTE

One of the Laboratories of the Scientific and Technical Department

and commercial associations in this country who are in a position to supply special information, and with official and other bodies concerned with technical questions, and also with the Agricultural and other Government Departments throughout the Empire.

The Bureau also undertakes the collection, indexing and arranging of such published and other information as is likely to be of service in dealing with the enquiries and in connection with other work of the Institute.

The enquiries are received from Governments, firms and individuals overseas, as

quests for technical information regarding the details of industrial processes and particulars of the machinery involved therein; the methods of tropical agriculture and the processes adopted in the preparation of commercial products for the market; current conditions obtaining in the market as regards specific products; and related subjects. Other enquiries relate to the prospects for agricultural and other industries in the different countries of the Empire, chiefly in the tropics. No charge is made for information supplied by the Bureau.

PUBLICATIONS.

The principal publication is the quarterly *Bulletin of the Imperial Institute*, which contains reports on investigations carried out by the Scientific and Technical Department; articles on the production, uses and marketing of raw materials; a special section dealing with recent progress in agricultural and mineral developments in different parts of the world; and notices of recent books and other publications, especially those relating to tropical agriculture and the development of natural resources. A series of Handbooks to the Commercial Resources of the Tropics, with special reference to West Africa, has been issued. Minerals are dealt with in a series of Monographs, prepared under the direction of the Mineral Resources Committee of the Institute. Other publications of the Institute include Reports of the Indian Trade Enquiry, and the series of Selected Reports from the Scientific and Technical Department, which contain the results of many technical and commercial investigations.

LIBRARY.

The Library of the Institute contains a large collection of works of reference, and is regularly supplied with the more important official publications and with many of the principal periodicals of the United Kingdom, the Dominions, the Colonies, India and Foreign Countries. Special attention is given to publications relating to tropical agriculture and forestry, mineral resources, and the production and utilisation of raw materials. The Library includes about 35,000 publications, and in addition over 500 serial journals are regularly received. A Reading Room is available for the use of enquirers and other visitors to the Institute.

PUBLIC EXHIBITION GALLERIES.

First among the objects of the Imperial Institute, as originally laid down, was "the formation and exhibition of collections representing the important raw materials and manufactured products of our Empire." At the present time between thirty and forty separate collections are maintained, each country of the Empire being represented; and new exhibits are frequently received from private sources as well as

from the Governments concerned. The principal economic exhibits comprise food products (wheat, rice, maize and other cereals, tea, coffee, cocoa, sugar, fruits, spices and condiments); fibres (cotton, jute, sisal, flax, hemp, etc.); gums, resins, rubber, oils and oil-seeds, timbers, tanning materials; animal products (wool, leather, feathers, tinned meats, oils and fats, shells, beeswax, etc.), and minerals. The Exhibition galleries, which are free to the public, thus provide under one roof a comprehensive permanent display of Imperial resources, and fulfil an important public purpose in teaching the commercial geography of the Empire. There is no other place where such collections, systematically arranged on a geographical basis, can be seen and studied side by side in one and the same building, with the assistance of maps, pictures, photographs, explanatory labels, diagrams and models.

Free lectures, with explanation of exhibits, are given to the public at stated times, and also to parties from schools on written application to the Director. Besides being visited by schools and the general public, the collections are used for reference purposes by commercial firms, and are also of value in connection with many enquiries and investigations conducted at the Imperial Institute.

A general reorganisation of all the exhibits has recently taken place, and the galleries of the Institute now form a permanent Empire Exhibition. There is a central stand for the distribution of literature.

CINEMA.

In addition to lecture demonstrations, a cinema has been installed, and films depicting the life and industries of all parts of the Empire are regularly shown free to the public.

MINERAL, PLANT AND ANIMAL PRODUCTS.

As the Institute has been amalgamated with the Mineral Resources Bureau, all enquiries and investigations regarding minerals can be dealt with by the fifteen Advisory Committees. There is also a Plant and Animal Products' Department.

INDIAN EMPIRE

THE Indian Empire consists of ten British Provinces and a large number (620, inclusive of those in Burma) of native states of varying size and importance administered by native princes under the guidance of a political agent of the Viceroy. The area of the whole Empire, exclusive of Nepal and Bhutan—the relations of which to the Imperial Government are of a special character—is 1,802,657 square miles, with a population of about 322,000,000, which increases, approximately, at the rate of 3,000,000 every ten years. The area of the native states alone—under British suzerainty—is 712,000 square miles, with a population of about 72,649,187 (estimated in 1930).

INDIA IN THE DARK AGES.

The vedas, or sacred writings of the Indian Aryans, which are believed to date from 1500 B.C., together with other works of a somewhat later date, throw a dim light upon the early conditions of India during the Aryan Conquest. The brilliant achievements of the British Raj make it preferable however, to pass lightly over the dark ages of early conquest and devote the full space demanded by India's modern history. Mention must be made *en passant* of the Greek and Scythian invasions, which took place between 120 B.C. and 600 A.D., the Afghan, or Mohammedan conquest during 650 to 1398; and in 1526 of the founding of the Mogul Empire by Sultan Baber, who defeated the remaining Afghan chiefs at Panipat. The first great Mogul Emperor was his son Akbar, who laid the foundations of the

splendid empire, which, under Shah Jehan, in 1628, is said to have had an annual revenue of about 30 millions sterling. It was during this period of native splendour that many of India's magnificent buildings were constructed; the most notable example is the famous Taj Mahal at Agra, dedicated to the beautiful and beloved Empress of Shah Jehan. History teems with examples of the fall of Empires divided against themselves, and the dominion of the Moguls crumbled away before the growing power of the Mahrattas in 1630-1650; whose task of conquest was made easier by the Persian invasion under Nadir Shah in 1738, when Delhi was sacked and over 80,000 people slain. During the early part of the eighteenth century India was torn by internal strife, caused principally by the misrule of the Mahratta chiefs, whose Empire never attained the state of solidity and efficiency of that of the Moguls, and like all nations in the grip of anarchy offered unlimited scope for foreign adventure.

DAWN OF EUROPEAN ADVENTURE.

Europe, from the beginning of oversea commercial enterprise to the present day, has never ceased to regard the East as the very acme of profitable trade. Every nation which has had large commercial interests in Southern Asia has gained in prosperity thereby. It is this undisputed fact that has caused all the great Powers, since the fourteenth century, to struggle unceasingly for dominion in India, and, during recent years, has been the *raison d'être* for the varying designs of Europe in China.



DELHI—THE CAPITAL OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE

The splendour of India. Durbar procession of Indian Princes on richly adorned elephants

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, the foreign trade of India was almost exclusively in the hands of Venetians and Arabs; many of the former becoming the richest and most enterprising merchant princes in the world. Seeing the great wealth to be obtained by even a few successful voyages to India, the King of Portugal dispatched an expedition to find an ocean route. After many vain attempts, Vasco da Gama, the famous navigator, sailed round the Cape of Good Hope and across the Indian Ocean to Calicut, at that time an Arab trading station. India was thus reached, for the first time by water from Europe, in 1498.

The most notable Portuguese Viceroy was Francisco da Almieda, who extended his influence to Ceylon and the coast of Burma, and Albuquerque, who established Goa in 1510, which still remains the capital of the small Portuguese possessions in India, and extended Portuguese suzerainty over Malacca and the whole coast of Malaya. These were glorious and progressive days for Portugal. Her sway was paramount along the whole coast of Southern Asia, from the Persian Gulf to the Sea of Japan.

Gradually this vast dominion began to crumble, as the heart of the Empire beat slower and slower. Self-indulgence and over-confidence on the part of the people of Portugal, misrule of some of the Viceroy, and almost complete monopoly of the lucrative eastern trade by the kings, contributed very largely to the decay of the Portuguese Empire, which was almost completely disintegrated when Portugal came under the crown of Spain in 1580.

Decisive and far-reaching have nearly always been the effects of victory, or defeat, on the high seas, and there is little doubt that Sir Francis Drake's crushing blow to the Spanish Armada, in 1588, occasioned the loss to Spain of many of the Asiatic possessions acquired by Portugal; for, although the closing of Lisbon Harbour by Phillip II, to Dutch ships used for conveying Eastern merchandise from Lisbon to different parts of Europe, gave birth to the Dutch East India Company, it was Drake's defeat of the

Spanish Navy that prevented her disputing, by force of arms, the right of any other nation to commence organised trade with the East.

With the decay of the Portuguese Dominion came the rise of Dutch and English influence in the East Indies.* By 1670, the Dutch had taken nearly all the Portuguese possessions, and established a firm footing in Malaya, Formosa, on the coast of Madras and Ceylon; and had founded a settlement at the Cape of Good Hope—then, the half-way supply station on the ocean route to the East. The British East India Company was granted its first Charter by Queen Elizabeth in 1600, but for many years made little headway; the Dutch, however, had confined themselves more especially to the Malay Peninsula and Archipelago, from which they drove the English by the massacre of Amboyna in 1623. To these colonies they clung tenaciously, until Holland itself was crushed in 1810.

The effects of Napoleon's victories on the continent of Europe were felt in all parts of the world. Dom Joao of Portugal fled to Brazil, and there laid the foundations upon which his son built up the Brazilian Empire; the Eastern Dominions of the Dutch were incorporated in the French Empire, and in consequence were captured by the English. Java, however, was given back in 1816, and Sumatra exchanged for Malacca, on the mainland of the Peninsula in 1824. Clive gave the death blow to Dutch ambitions in India, wresting Chinsurah from them in 1759; and it may be said that, although British supremacy was virtually established after the defeat of the French at Wandewash, and Clive's victory at Plassey, it was made *indisputable* by the blow given to French intrigue at the native courts of India by the destruction of the power of Tipu in the fourth Mysore war, which was undoubtedly fostered by the agents of Napoleon who was then engaged in the conquest of Egypt, and had occupied the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon, with the idea of ultimately establishing a great Eastern Empire.†

Almost continual warfare preceded the advent of British rule in India. The Aryan

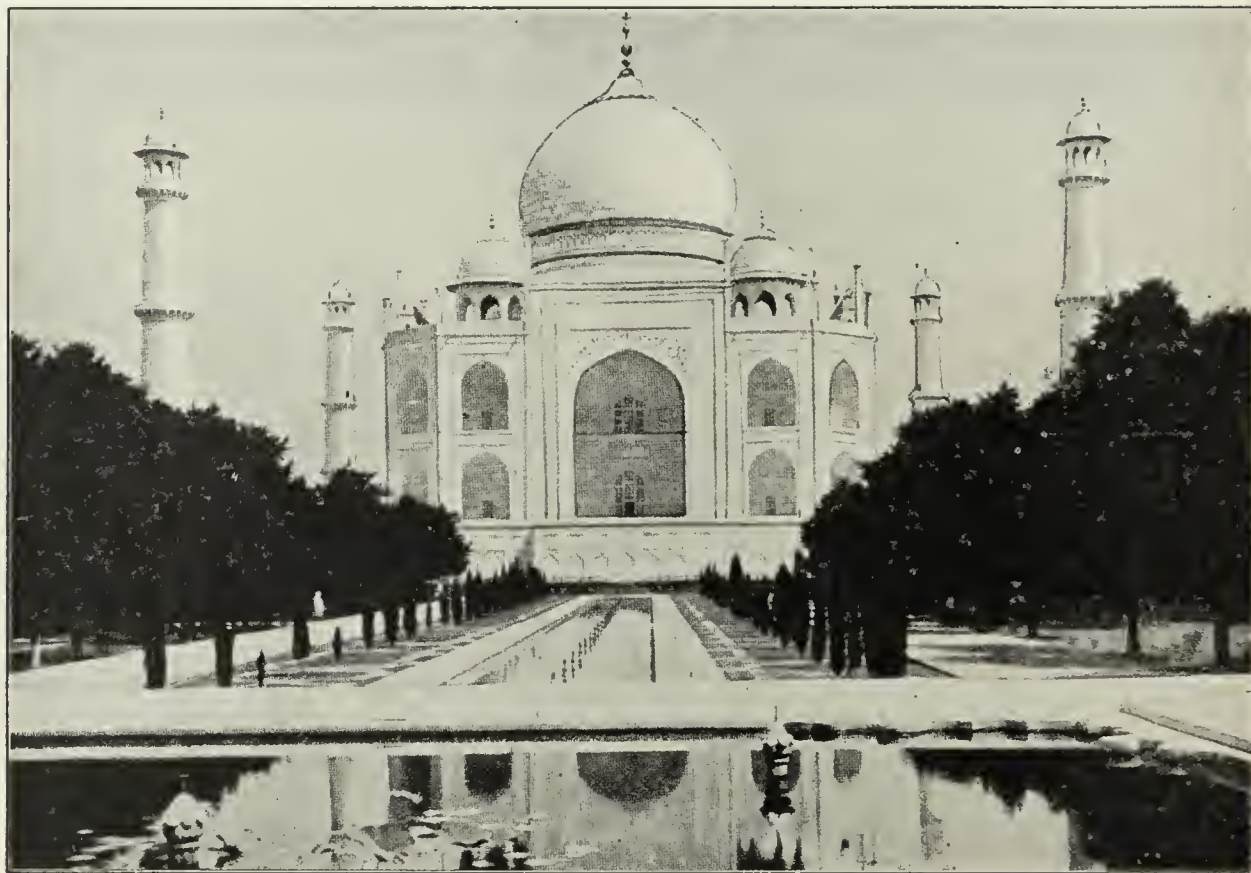
* The Portuguese possessions, at the present time, are Goa, Damán, and Diu, all on the west coast. Total area just over 1,500 square miles.

† Napoleon's message to Tipu, Sultan of Mysore, previously to the war of 1799, was to the effect that *he was approaching at the head of a countless and invincible army.*



BY A. H. LEE

SPECIALLY DRAWN FOR THE ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE



THE TAJ MAHAL, AGRA

conquest, long before the period of European adventure, was but the known beginning of a series of conquests and invasions which lasted over 2,000 years. The weaker states were subject to fearful oppression, and the stronger ones, in their turn, fell under the iron heel of invading hosts. It may, therefore, truthfully be said that to India's millions the British Raj has proved indeed a blessing.

RISE OF BRITISH POWER IN INDIA.

For nearly 150 years after receiving its Royal Charter from Queen Elizabeth, the East India Company, which was then entitled "The Governor and Company of Merchants of London Trading to the East Indies," remained merely a trading concern. The early voyages were attended with little success, owing to the inability of the Company to obtain a proper footing on the coast of India, and the capital was consequently raised from £70,000 to £400,000, which was afterwards increased, by amalgamation with

four other companies, granted charters during the reigns of Charles I, William II, and Queen Anne, to several millions sterling.

Disputes with the Portuguese, and later with the Dutch, constantly took place, and fierce sea fights were frequent. England obtained her first proper footing on Indian territory in 1615, when Captain Best, with four ships, defeated a Portuguese Squadron of far superior strength, and thereby greatly enhanced the prestige of the English in the trading stations at Zurat, Gogra, Cambay, and Almahabad. Shortly after this event, the Emperor Ichangir was induced to receive an Envoy from His Majesty King James I.*

Sir Thomas Roe was the first English Ambassador to the Court of the Great Mogul Emperor; and although his influence was necessarily small—as must always be the case when it is seen that a Minister can obtain but little support from the King or Government which he represents—he succeeded in gaining several concessions and "rights of trade," which were greatly

* The first envoy was Captain Hawkins, who resided for three years at Agra.

appreciated by the Court of Directors of the East India Company, but passed by almost unrecognised at the Court of King James, attention at that time being focussed upon events on the continent of Europe, and upon the occupation of Barbados, Bermudas, and New England.

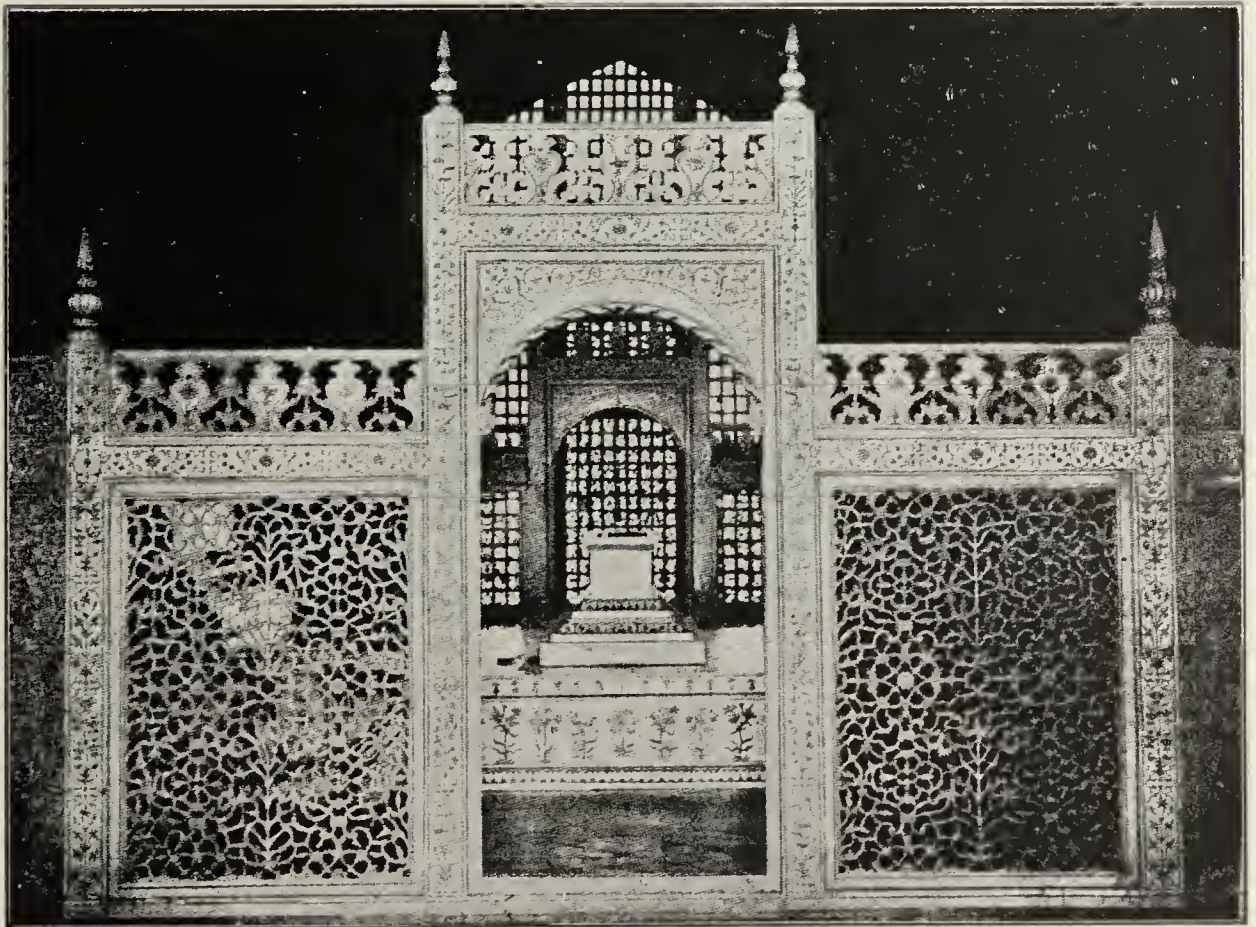
A Royal Charter was granted to another company during the reign of Charles I, and the rivalry between these two undertakings, whose objects were exactly alike, led to acts of piracy, which nearly brought about the extinction of British enterprise in India; but a few years later, under pressure from Cromwell, then Lord Protector, the two companies were amalgamated.

A strip of land near Masulipatam, acquired by the company in 1639, fortified, and named Fort St. George, formed the nucleus of the present Province of Madras.* The Island of Bombay, part of the dowry of Katharine of

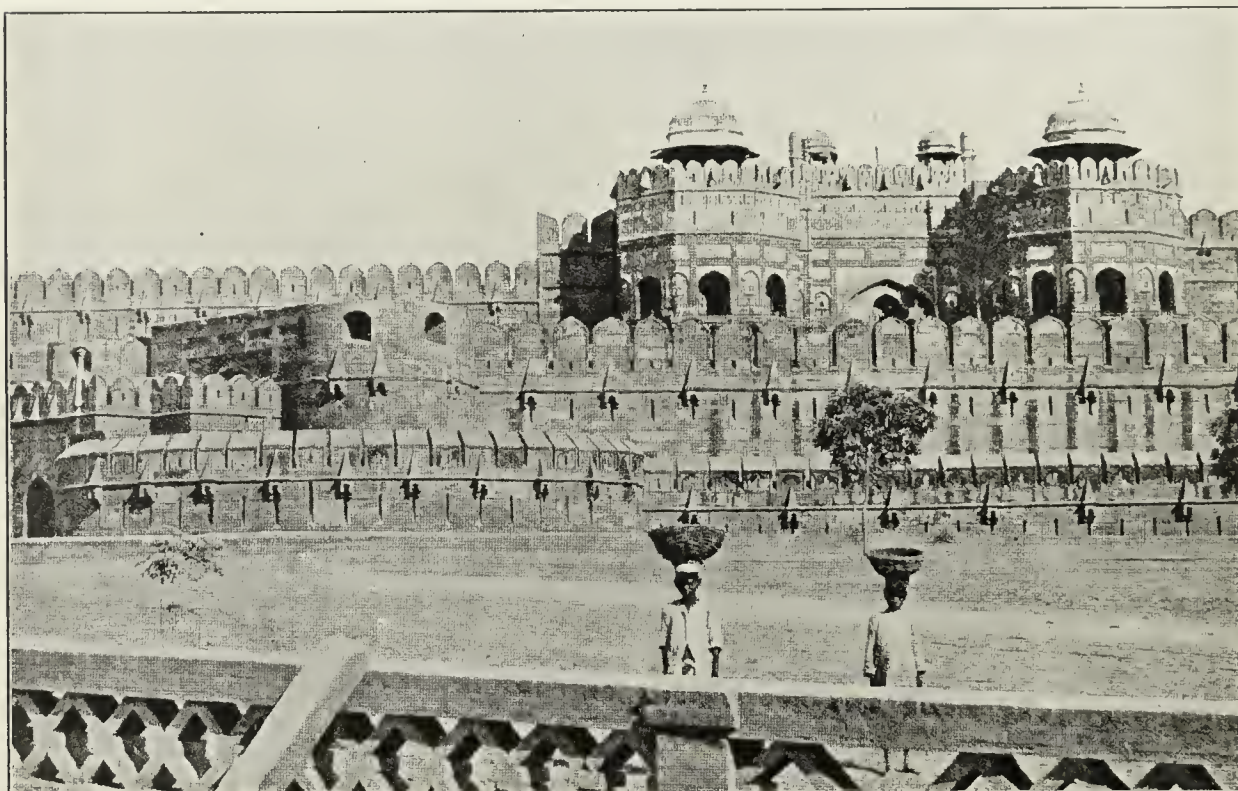
Braganza on her alliance with the Merry Monarch, was eventually transferred to the East India Company, in return for a small royalty. Fort William, which gradually developed into the fine City of Calcutta, was founded in 1689; but the flotation of another East India Company was followed by stagnation and eventually by confusion, which lasted until Lord Godolphin succeeded in uniting all the conflicting English interests in the East under a Royal Charter granted by Queen Anne in 1708. During that reign Gibraltar and Nova Scotia were also added to the growing Empire.

During the thirty years which followed French interests in India grew apace, although as early as 1604 they founded their first East India Company, which was followed by five others before the beginning of the next century. Friction between the two nations was the source of continual trouble.

* Fort St. George has grown into the City of Madras.



TOMB OF SHAH JEHAN, TAJ MAHAL, AGRA



THE FORT, AGRA

FRANCE AND ENGLAND IN INDIA.

The struggle with France for mastery in India, which lasted for fourteen years, commenced in 1746, when Dupleix, then Governor of the French Company, used the force at his command in the disputes which arose between native princes, supporting claimants opposed to English interests. This caused the English Company to throw in their lot with the opposing sides. At first the British suffered some reverses, and there can be little doubt that if Dupleix had been properly supported by France he would have succeeded in establishing French Dominion over a large portion of India, as England was at that time hotly engaged in the war of the Austrian Succession, against the Bourbons of France and Spain, which did not terminate until the "Peace of Aix-la-Chappelle" in 1748.

The struggle with France continued in a desultory manner for nearly five years,

during which time the English cannot be said to have always had the best of it, until Clive turned the tide of war by the splendid defence of Arcot in 1751. This was rapidly followed by several strategical victories which eventually brought the French to decisive battle at Wandewash in 1760, where they were utterly defeated, and Pondicherry was captured in the following year.

The result of this brilliant, though somewhat protracted, series of campaigns was the downfall of the princes supported by the French, the recall of Dupleix, and the failure of French designs in India. France, however, possess to this day five small colonies in India, with a total area of 203 square miles, which are, however, principally trading ports.*

While these events were in progress in Madras, there occurred an incident familiar to all. On the night of 20th June, 1756, Surajah Dowlah, the Nabob of Bengal, imprisoned

* Mention must be made here of Germany's efforts to participate in the lucrative Indian trade. The Prussian Imperial Ostend East India Company was incorporated in 1722, and stations were established at Coblom and Bankipur; but, although successful at first, the whole undertaking was sacrificed by the King in 1722, in order to obtain the sanction of the other Powers to a European project.

in "The Black Hole of Calcutta" 146 English captives, of whom only twenty-three were alive when the doors were opened at day-break.*

Clive, summoned from Madras to Bengal, to punish Surajah Dowlah for this atrocious deed, marched with a very small army from the scene of his activities against the French and met the forces of the Nabob in action at Plassey, where he gained a decisive victory over superior numbers, and crushed the power of Bengal. This, with Sir Eyre Coote's victory over the French at Wandewash in 1760, laid the foundations of the British Empire in India.

WARREN HASTINGS TO THE MUTINY.

Mir Jafar, the Nabob, set up by Clive after the overthrow of Surajah Dowlah, was, of course, controlled in all his actions by British advice, and, in 1758, Baron Clive of Plassey

became the first Governor of Bengal. During his absence, owing to ill-health, some five years later, war again broke out, but after a short and sharp campaign, which culminated in Major Munro's brilliant victory at Baxar, the Mogul Emperor, fearing a further advance, ceded to the English authorities, in return for certain advantages, the *diwani* of Behar, Bengal, Orissa, and the territory known as the Northern Cicars of Madras.

Clive, before finally leaving India, where he had accomplished so much for the Empire, set himself the task of reforming the services of the East India Company, in which corruption was rife, owing to the insufficient pay of the military and judicial authorities. He succeeded, in the face of strong opposition, which at one time ripened into actual mutiny, in eradicating many of the abuses which at that time were completely demoralising the company's actions. Clive

* The Black Hole was a badly ventilated apartment of about 20 square feet.



THE KUTB MINAR AND MOSQUE, DELHI

was the founder of the military forces of the British East India Company, but his successor, Warren Hastings, was the administrative organiser and statesman.

Hastings became Governor of Bengal in 1772, and almost immediately commenced the work of reorganising the Revenue, Judicial, and Police Services. Under a Parliamentary Statute, known as the "Regulation Act," he was created the first Governor-General in 1774.



THE MOTI MASJID, DELHI

The ceaseless struggle between Hastings and the majority in his council has been inimitably set forth in Lord Macaulay's celebrated essay on *Warren Hastings*; and his impeachment before the House of Lords, during the seven years following his return to England in 1786, for various acts of supposed oppression, and for tampering with the rightful course of justice, forms one of the greatest State trials in the history of England. It is sufficient to say that his impeachment was the inevitable result of

the calumnies spread by his unscrupulous council, and that his acquittal was in the natural course of equity. That acquittal, however, has not saved his memory from tarnish at the hands of some historians.

It was the firm foreign and financial policy of Warren Hastings which marked him as an administrator of more than ordinary determination and ability. By a series of economies in the payment of pensions to the rulers of contiguous native states, he increased the

Company's revenue by nearly two millions sterling per annum; but his policy of forcing increased tribute from other sources has often been seriously questioned. In fairness, however, it must be remembered that he was the *chief agent of a commercial company* whose directors expected a continual increase of profit on the capital invested. It is highly probable that, had Hastings been in the position of the present Viceroys, his financial policy would have been considerably modified.

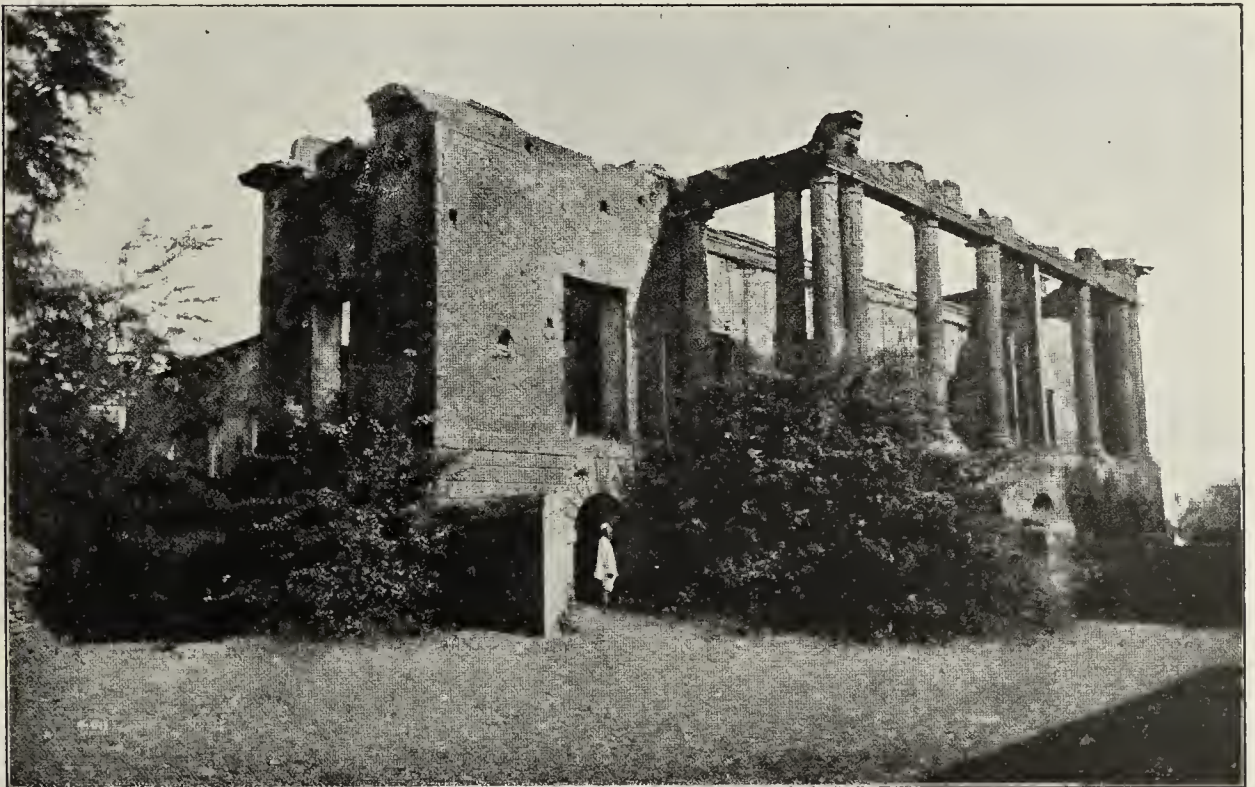
Of the important military events which occurred during the administration of Warren Hastings, the first Mahratta War was but of little consequence, compared with the invasion of the Carnatic, known as the First Mysore War, which seriously threatened to exterminate British power in India. Hyder Ali of Mysore, with his son Tipu, assisted by a combination of Mussulman powers in India, laid waste the country up to the walls of Madras; but Hastings, seeing the danger of even a more extended rising, succeeded in holding back the Nizam of the Deccan and the Raja of Wagpore, and sent every available man remaining in the Bengal Army to assist Madras. Notwithstanding the great experience in

Indian warfare of Sir Eyre Coote, the commander-in-chief, he succeeded only in stemming the tide of invasion, though in so doing he saved British prestige. Hyder Ali died before the close of the war, and his son Tipu agreed to an honourable peace, only, however, to once more take the field against the English in 1790.

The first administration of Lord Cornwallis, who succeeded Warren Hastings in 1786, was marked by the introduction of the "Permanent Settlement of the Land

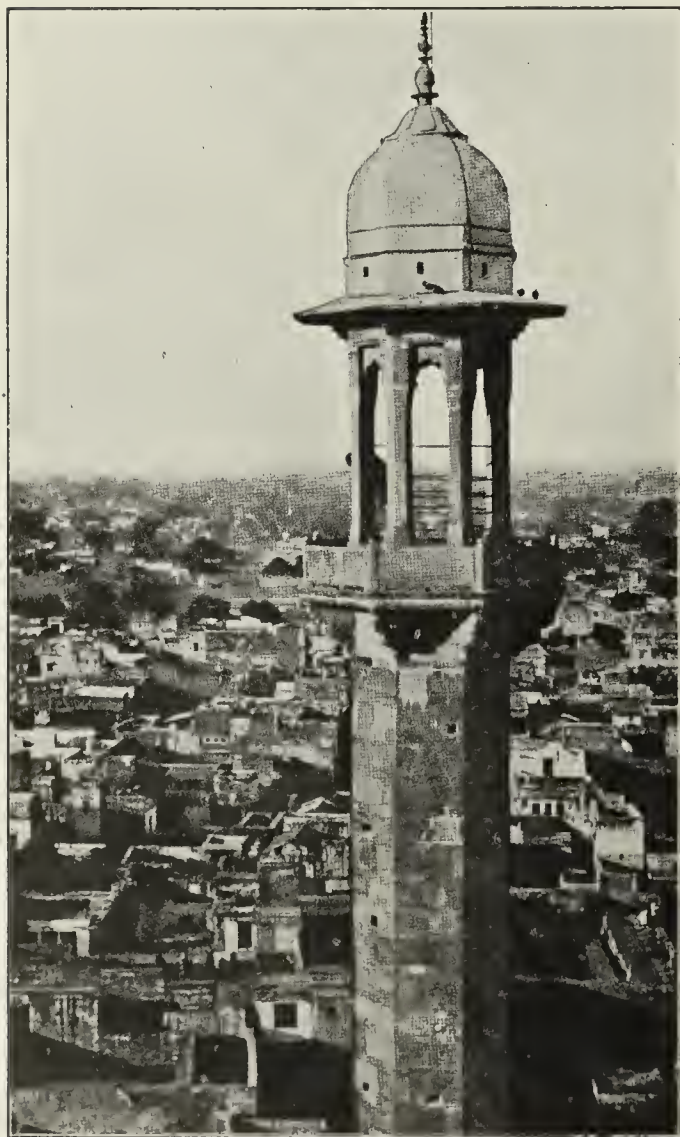


HOSAINABAD GATE, LUCKNOW



RESIDENCY RUINS, LUCKNOW

Revenue of Bengal." Previously to this, the Zemindars, or government farmers, collected the revenue from the native cultivators without a fixed assessment; but Cornwallis's plan for a definite settlement differed from that now in vogue, inasmuch as no survey was attempted of the areas under cultivation, nor any estimate made of the production, the assessment being based on what had been paid in previous years. The Court of Directors were strong in their demands for the quick establishment of a Permanent Settlement, as it tended to give stability to the finances and prestige of the British East India Company.



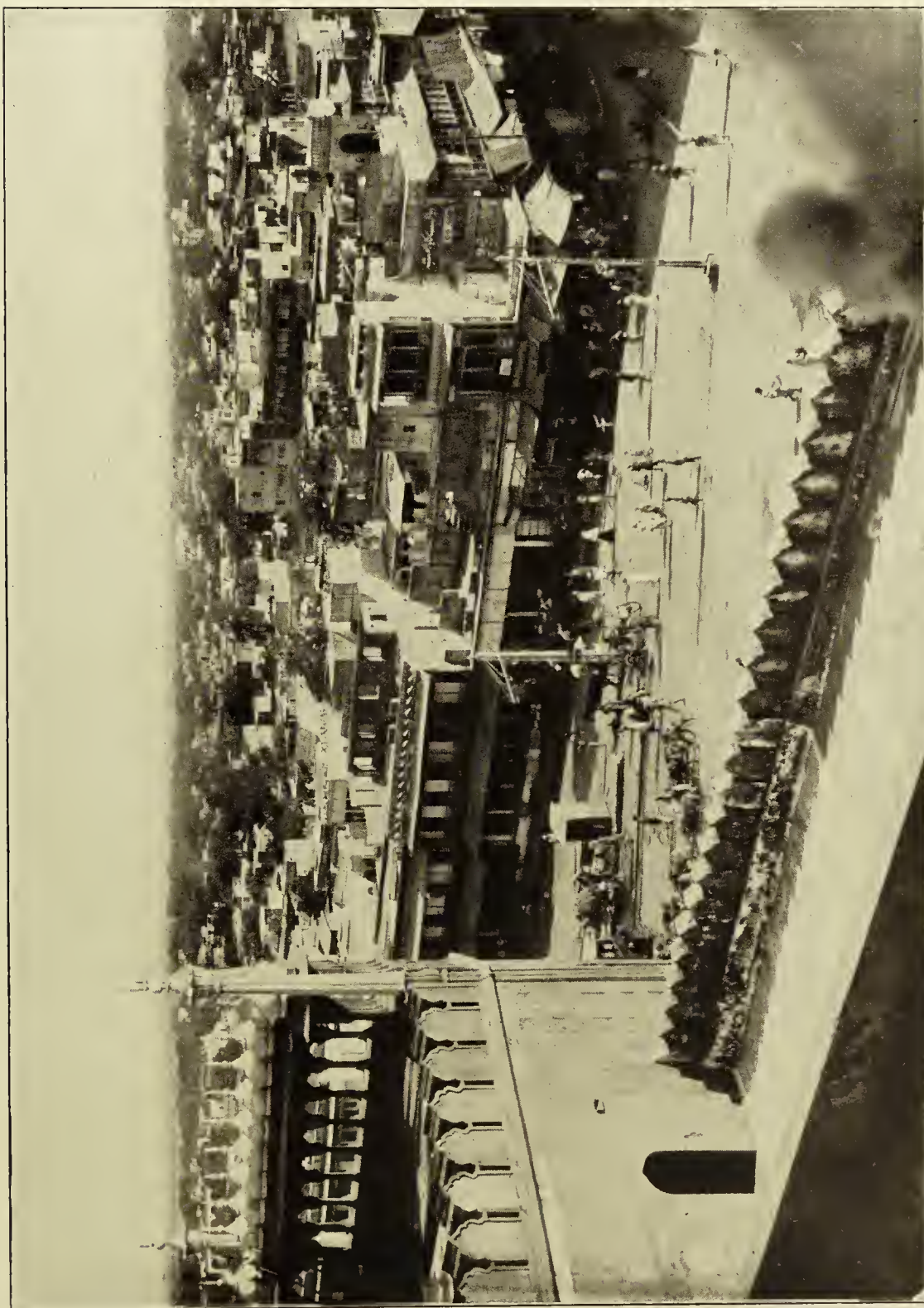
BENARES FROM A MOSQUE MINARET

Lord Cornwallis, with the assistance of Sir John Shore (afterwards Lord Teignmouth), a permanent civil servant of the Company, completed this by no means easy task in 1791; previously to which the second Mysore War broke out, and the British forces, which had been reinforced, were led by the Governor General in person. This time, however, the Mahratta chiefs and the Nizam of the Deccan became allies of the British, and Tippos, after a stout resistance, agreed to give up half his dominions, and to pay a war indemnity of three millions sterling.

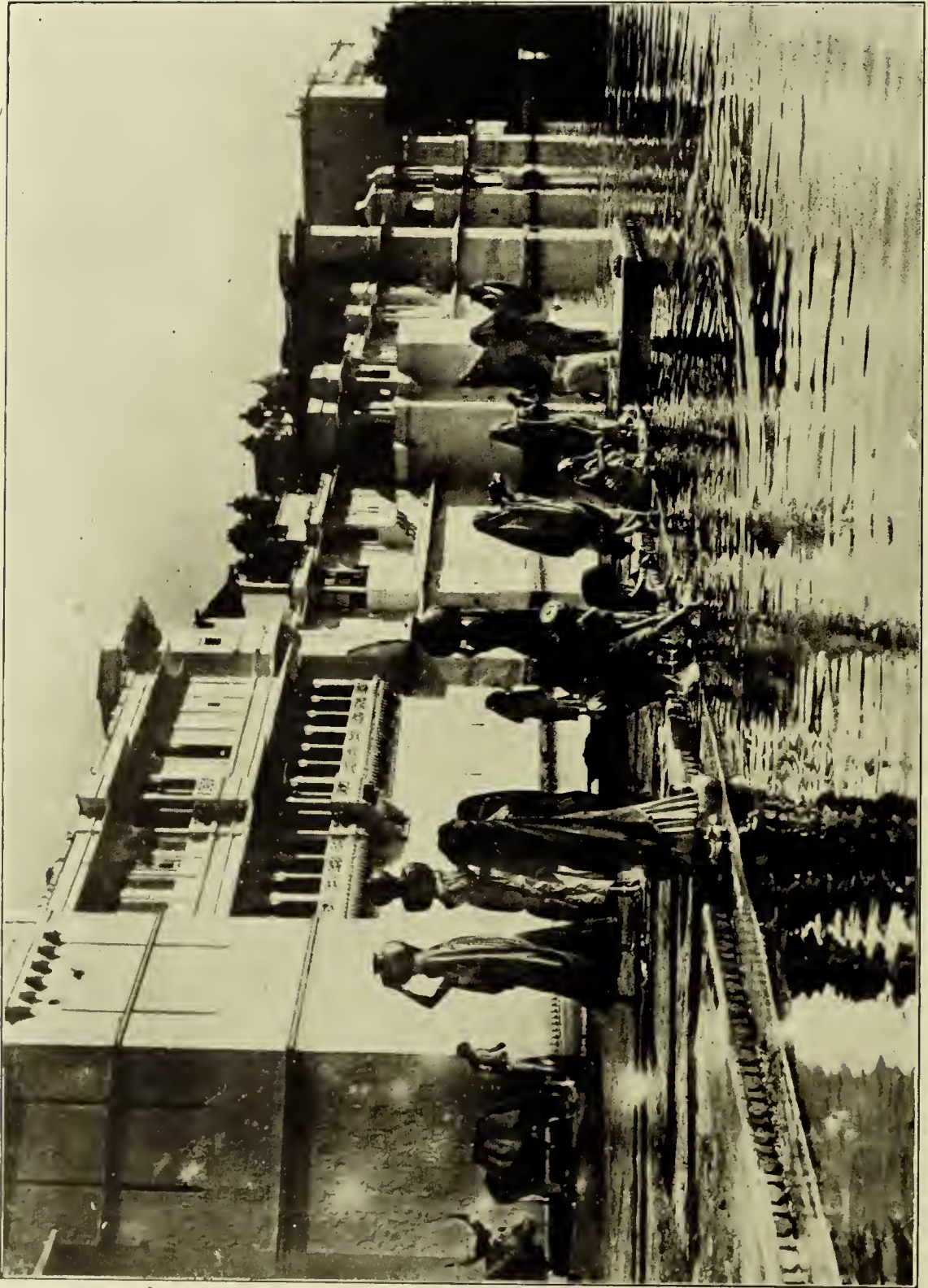
Sir John Shore became Governor-General in 1793, and continued in office for five years, during which time no important events took place, but his successor, the Marquess Wellesley (Lord Mornington), who commenced his eventful administration in 1798, was the founder of the policy which slowly welded India into a great Empire under the British Crown.

Lord Wellesley decided that the moment had arrived when the English must either become the supreme power in India or else lose the possession and advantages they had already gained; hence his successful endeavours to induce several of the most important native princes to surrender their political independence in return for protection and security in the exercise of their limited powers of sovereignty. This was the beginning of the policy of "protected native states," which has since been adopted, not only in India and the Federated Malay States, but also in portions of British Africa. Full liberty was allowed the princes or chiefs in internal affairs, with the exception of the fiscal administration in certain instances, but they were controlled in their foreign relations, and in their attitude towards each other.

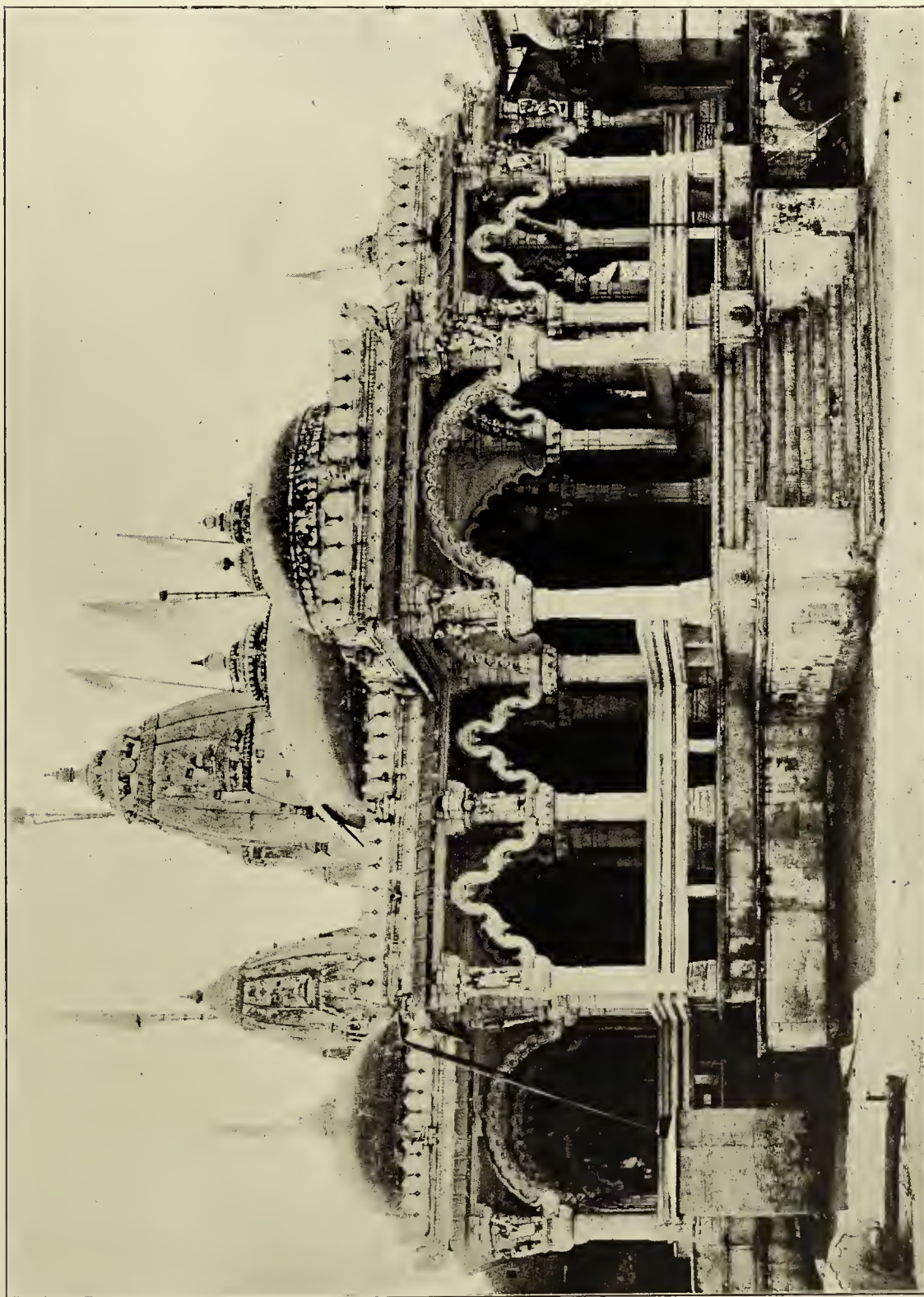
It was during this administration that the danger of an invasion of India by the French under Napoleon assumed the most threatening stage. The Great Corsican had made himself master of Egypt; in India itself, in Hyderabad, there were many French regiments; the Mahrattas were led by French officers, and Tippos, Sultan of Mysore, burning to be avenged for his previous defeat at the hands of the English, was



DELHI, THE IMPERIAL CAPITAL



A LAKESIDE SCENE IN BEAUTIFUL UDAIPUR, RAJPUTANA



HATHI SINGH'S TEMPLE, AHMADABAD
Sometimes called the Temple of Swami Narayan

Photo, Underwood



THE CHAR MINAR, HYDERABAD



RUGGED GRANDEUR OF THE MIGHTY HIMALAYAS
TASSETU JONG, NEAR DARJEELING



MOUNT EVEREST

A telephoto view of Mount Everest (29,000 ft.), the most lofty peak in the World, taken from Sandakphu (12,000 ft.), about 37 miles from Darjeeling



THE BAZAAR AT BUNDI, RAJPUTANA



THE GREAT FORT OF DELHI

The balcony just outside the Diwan Khas, or Hall of Private Audience in the great Fort of Delhi, the historic seat of Imperial power in India. Shah Akbar II daily showed himself to the people of India from this platform

endeavouring to obtain the active co-operation of the invincible arms of the Master of War. The French Directory had, however, but little weight in Eastern Councils ; still less had they any real inclination for Asiatic enterprise ; but, with the rise of Napoleon's power, the danger from that quarter was no longer negligible ; and no one realised this more than Lord Wellesley, whose sole aim was to consolidate British rule in India.

With this end in view, he concluded the Treaty of Lucknow, in 1801, which extended British territorial jurisdiction to the North-West Provinces and Oudh ; he also assisted the Mohammedan Nizam of Hyderabad to assert his authority over the French adventurers, and secured by treaty his loyal co-operation ; he also entered upon the Third Mysore War, which ended in the fall of Seringapatam, in 1799, and the death of Tippo Sultan. Then, in pursuance of the policy of consolidating India under the supreme authority of the British Crown, he extended the political jurisdiction of the Bombay Presidency, which was the *casus belli* of the second Mahratta War.

One column, under General Lake, succeeded, after the victories of Aligarh and Laswari, in taking the cities of Delhi and Agra, the heart of the native power, which, tottering to the fall, was then supported by the British. It is, however, the doings of the second column which has received the most attention from historians, as it was commanded by Sir Arthur Wellesley, afterwards the Duke of Wellington, Victor of Waterloo, who completely broke the Mahratta power at the battles of Assaye and Argaum.

These highly successful campaigns added considerably to the Company's sphere of influence and administration ; but the operations against Holkar, during 1804-5, were one of the few failures of British arms in India. Lord Wellesley succeeded, however, in his general scheme for bringing the powerful native states under nominal British suzerainty, and consolidating the territory under direct administration. He built the superstructure on the foundations laid by Clive and Hastings.

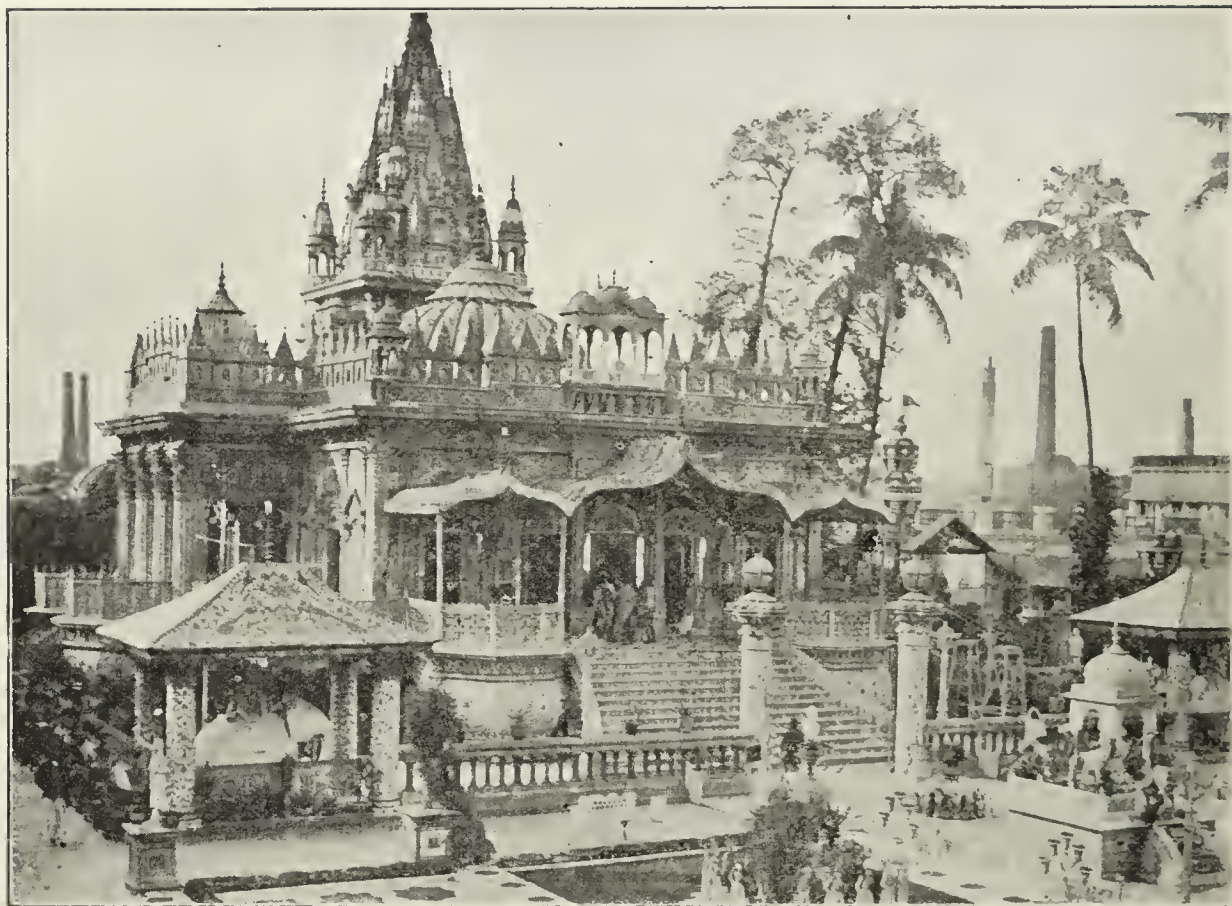
The Directors of the East India Company, which had rapidly changed from a solely

commercial to an administrative undertaking, grew alarmed at the expenditure on conquest, extension and administration, and decided to pursue a policy of retrenchment. To carry this out, Lord Cornwallis was, for the second time, appointed Governor-General, but died before he had been many months in India, and Sir George Barlow, one of the most able members of the Permanent Civil Service, was made Governor-General *ad interim*. He honestly carried out the policy of retrenchment ordered by the Court of Directors, but at the cost of broken obligations to protect certain friendly native princes, and with much consequent loss of prestige, a potent factor of eastern rule. His tenure of office was only of short duration, and, in 1807, the destinies of India passed into the hands of Lord Minto, an administrator of great tact, whose rule may be briefly described as one of peaceful consolidation, although Mauritius and Java were both taken during the six years he was in power.

Perhaps the most notable event in Lord Minto's administration was the beginning of the foreign relations of British India. Ambassadors were sent to Persia, Afghanistan, and the Punjab, to commence direct diplomatic relations.*

The Marquess of Hastings was the next Ruler of India. During his long term of nine years occurred the war with Nepal, brought about by the marauding raids of the Gurkhas, which had been taking place since the beginning of Lord Minto's administration. These magnificent little soldiers, from whom are now drawn some of the best fighting material of the Indian Army, were not easily subdued. During the first part of the campaign of 1814, the British and Indian troops received decidedly the worst of it, owing not only to the malarious climate, but also to the fierce fighting qualities of the Gurkhas themselves, whose favourite weapon, the kukris, proved very formidable in the hands of these lithe, agile warriors amid the long grass and broken ground ; but in the following year General Ochterlong advanced along the Sutlej and, after accomplishing the famous march into the valley of the Khatmandu, enforced the signing of the Treaty of Segouli, which, to this day, regulates the relations between British India and the native state of Nepal.

* The first ambassadors were Malcolm (Persia), Elphinstone (Afghanistan), Metcalf (Punjab).



Photo, A. S. Hutchinson



INDIA OLD AND NEW

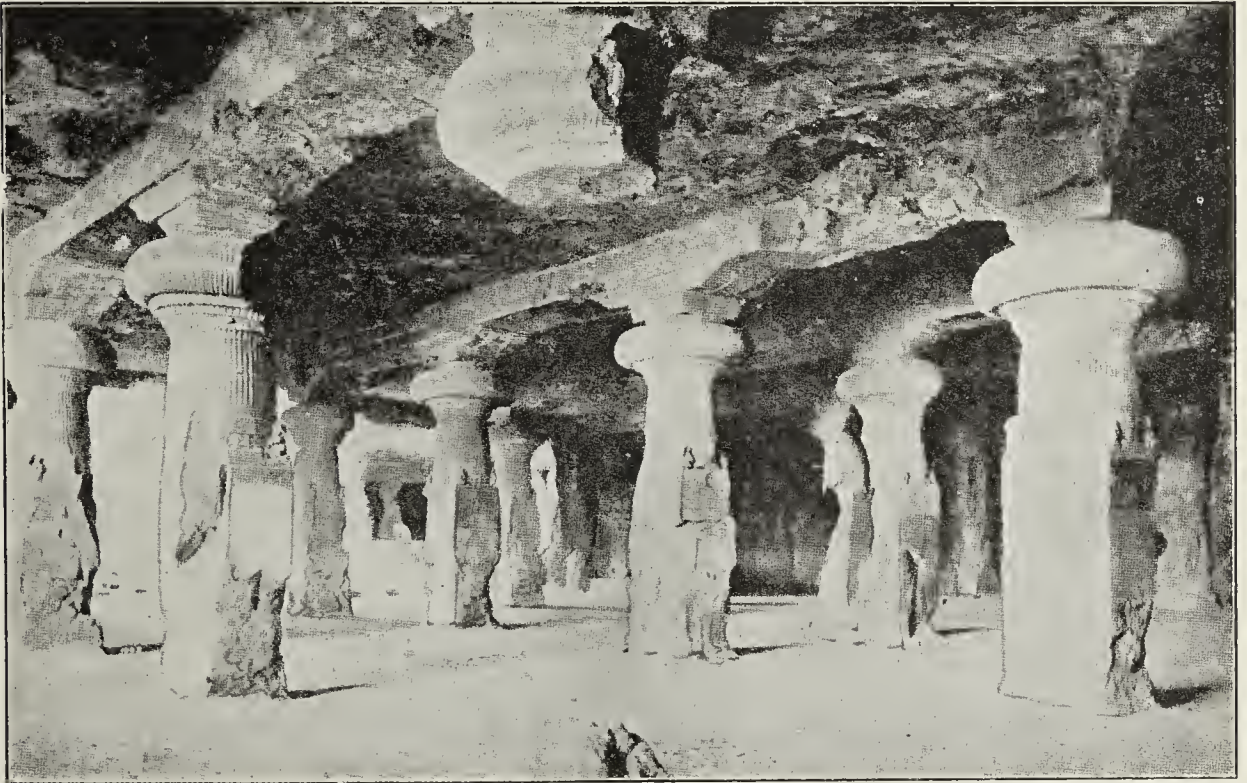
(1) The Jain Temple, Calcutta

(2) Victoria Memorial, Calcutta

Photo, C.P. Rly.

Two years after the settlement with Nepal, the Pindaris, or banditti of Central India, commenced ravaging the country in all directions. Lord Hastings, determined upon severe measures, mobilised the largest army then known in India, consisting of two columns, each 60,000 strong; and, in a very few months, succeeded in crushing the Pindaris, and in settling the whole of Central India; only, however, to be again compelled to take the field, for the last time, against the Malhratta confederacy, com-

Until the Mutiny, little further fighting occurred in this portion of India. The zones of war changed to Burma and the Punjab. Scarcely had Lord Amherst mounted the Viceregal Throne, before the independent Kingdom of Assam commenced a new series of depredations upon the Eastern frontier of India. The remonstrance of the Viceroy was received with insolence, both in Assam and Burma proper; and in 1824 the first Burmese War broke out. Expeditions were sent up the Brahmaputra and Irrawaddy,



ELEPHANTA CAVES, BOMBAY

prising the States of Poona, Indore, and Nagpur.

After a period of fighting lasting for over a year, Holkar, who had previously caused considerable trouble, was completely defeated. The Bombay Presidency was extended, and the Peshwa, whose territories were annexed, retired on a pension to Cawnpore, where his son, the Nana Sahib, repaid the liberality of the British by his foul treachery in the Mutiny—the "Bloody Well of Cawnpore."

The whole peninsula had now been brought under British suzerainty, and had entered upon the long process of internal settlement.

as well as overland, but it was two years before the King of Ava signed a Treaty, whereby the Kingdom of Assam, and the States of Arakan, and Tenasserim, were ceded to the British.

Guerrilla fighting in thick jungle is generally unsatisfactory and protracted; although Lord Wolseley's march to Coomassie formed an exception to this rule; and when to these obstacles is added the danger, to a European force, of a frightfully unhealthy climate, it is only natural that disease should become the most formidable enemy; hence the loss of life in the First Burmese War amounted



HIGH COURT AND RAJABAI TOWER, BOMBAY

to about 20,000, which, although out of all proportion to the number of men employed in the operation, was a noble sacrifice which gave to the Empire much of fertile Burma.

The storming of the walled city of Bhartpur, the scene of General Lake's defeat in 1805, made necessary by a disputed succession, was the last event of importance in the administration of Lord Amherst, who was succeeded by Lord William Bentinck in 1828-35.

This rule was one of peace with honour, in which careful financial investigations resulted in an increase of revenue. The principal political event was the abolition of *suttee*, or the burning of widows on the bodies of their husbands.

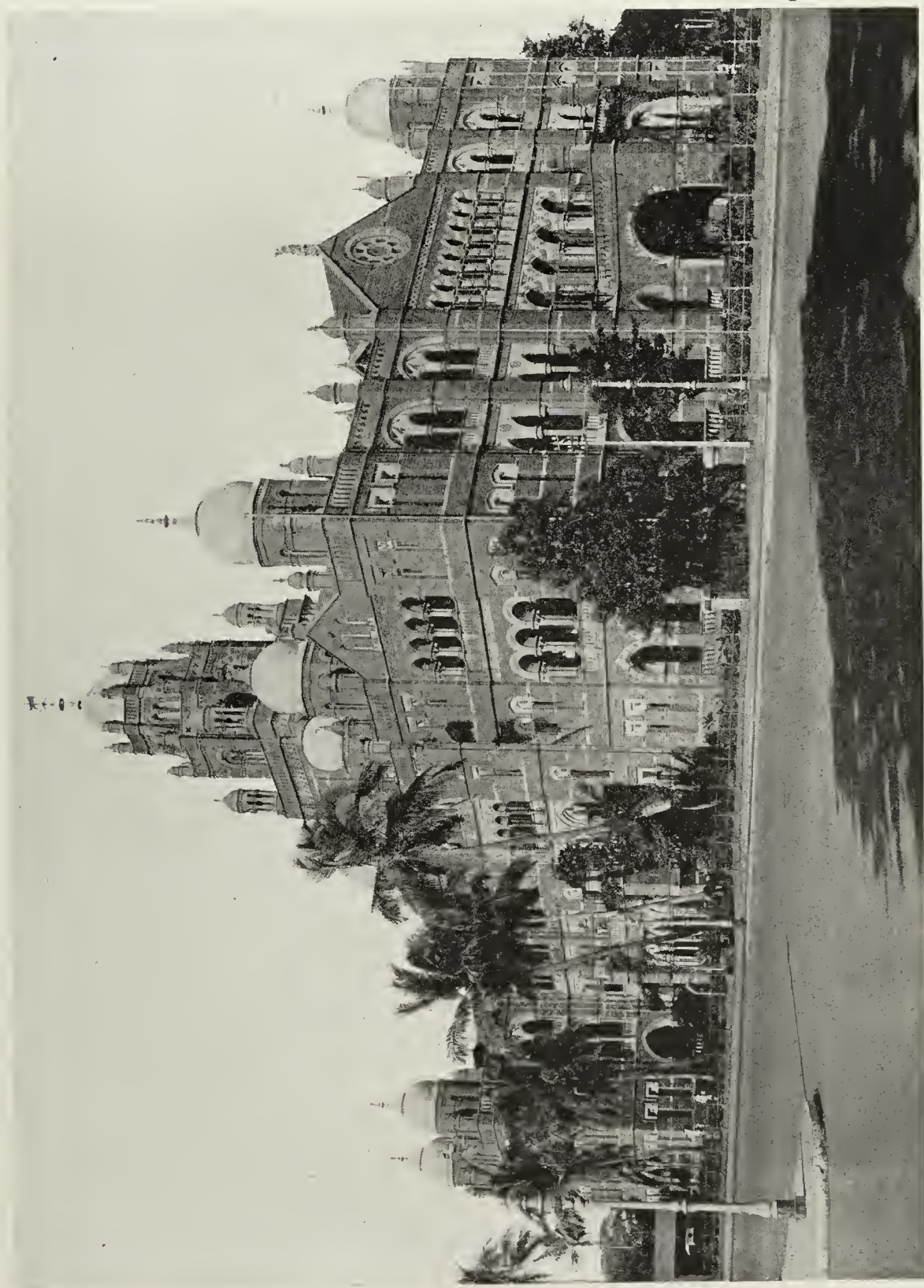
It is interesting to note that communication by steamship with India was first introduced about this time, and educated natives were permitted to enter higher branches of the East India services. Thuggee, or strangling by bands of armed assassins formed into secret societies, was severely repressed, although, as with Dacoitree, many years passed before the civil war was completely crushed out.

The Charter of the British East India Company was at this time renewed by the Crown for a further period of twenty years, but on the condition that it should become entirely an administrative undertaking, and give up commerce. Thus, directly the whole vast peninsula had been settled and made thoroughly secure, the doors were thrown open to unrestricted British commerce and enterprise.

The year of office of Lord Metcalfe was marked only by the granting of freedom to the British Press in India; but shortly after Lord Auckland's appointment, in 1836, commenced the era of war in the Punjab and Afghanistan.

The fear of a French invasion, which had been such a serious menace during the close of the eighteenth century, had now given place to the much more alarming danger of a Russian and Afghan advance into India. This may be considered the commencement of Russian designs on our great Eastern Empire.

Without embarking on even a brief resumé of the history of Afghanistan, it should be said that, after the death of Nadir Shah, the



BOMBAY, BARODA AND CENTRAL INDIA RAILWAY ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICES, BOMBAY
One of the finest railway buildings in the world

Persian Invader, a succession of able Afghan Amirs succeeded in extending their territory and forming a powerful and warlike nation, separated from the Sikh Kingdom by the Himalaya Mountains. During the early part of the administration of Lord Auckland, Dost Mohammed was seated upon the throne of Afghanistan, and was receiving the advice of a Russian Envoy at the same time that he was rejecting the commercial proposals of Captain Burnes, the agent of British India.

Although the Punjab and Sind, then both independent native states, intervened between Afghanistan and India, it was considered necessary to place on the throne an Amir favourable to British interests; consequently Lord Auckland decided to support with British bayonets the cause of Shah Shuja, then an exile in India. A British force accompanied the new ruler to Cabul, by way of the Bolan Pass, and, after some severe fighting, he was duly installed at the Bala Hissar in 1839. Dost Mohammed fled before the victorious arms; later, after offering further resistance, he was defeated and sent a prisoner to Calcutta.

For two years the warlike hill tribes of Afghanistan endured the weak though peaceful rule of the usurper, who was supported by 4,000 bayonets; but matters were brought to a crisis in 1841, when the two British political agents, Sir Alexander Burnes, and Sir William Macnaghten, were treacherously assassinated.

The British troops then quartered in Cabul were commanded by the aged General Elphinstone, who was quite unable to grasp the exigencies of the moment, and consequently, for two months, nothing was done; then, in reliance upon the promises of Afghan chiefs, a retirement through the lofty passes to the Indian frontier was commenced in midwinter. The retreat from Cabul can only be likened in a certain degree to Napoleon's retirement from Moscow. The force consisted of 4,000 men, with no fewer than 12,000 followers, including a number of women and children. The passes were blocked with snow, and those who did not succumb to the cold were treacherously stabbed or shot by the Afghans in the narrow defiles. With the exception of a few women, children, and officers, who were captured and

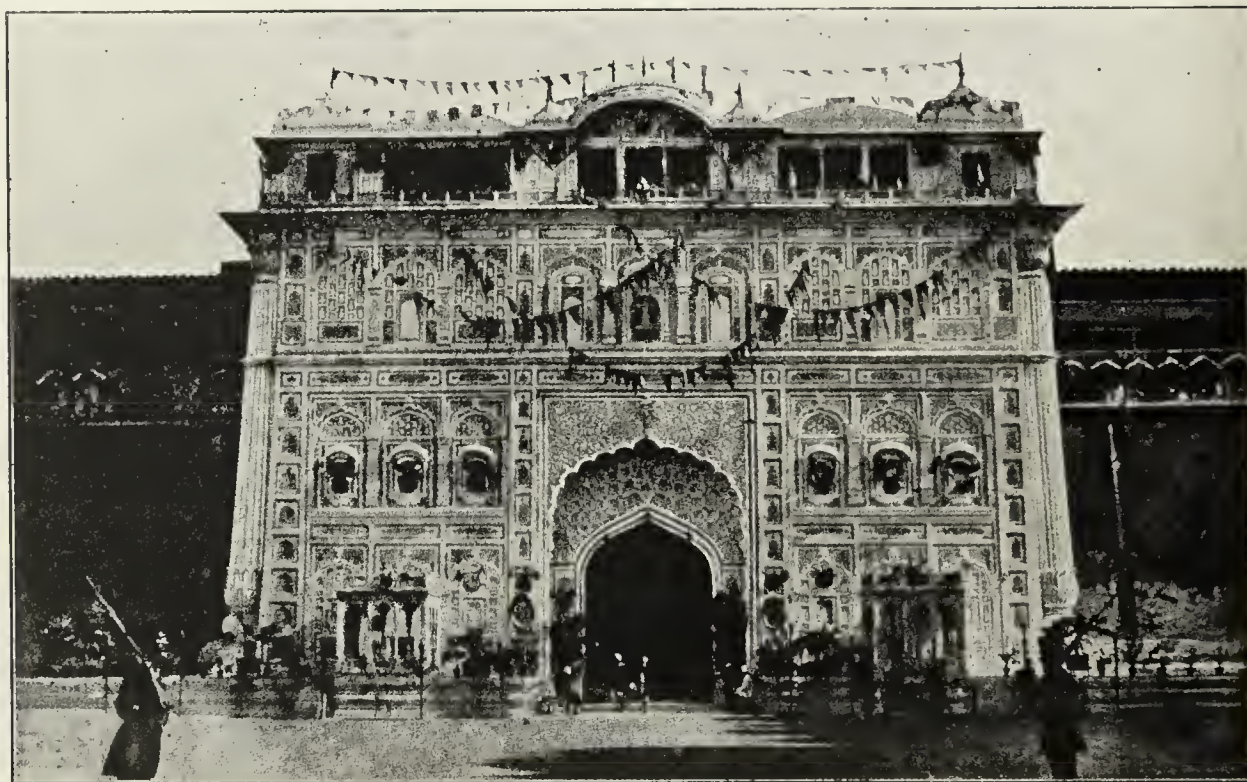


PRINCE OF WALES MUSEUM, BOMBAY



ANCIENT CARVINGS, SANCHI TOPE

The monuments and buildings at Sanchi Tope are the most magnificent and perfect examples of Buddhist architecture in India



THE FORT, PATIALA

well treated by Akbar Khan, of the whole 16,000 who left Cabul, Dr. Brydon was the sole survivor. He reached Jelalabad, which was being held by General Sale.

A relief column was at once despatched under General Pollock, who crossed the Punjab, relieved Jelalabad, and forced his way through the passes to Cabul. In the meantime General Nott's army in Afghanistan had also moved towards the capital, where the two avenging forces met in September, 1842.

It is unnecessary to enter here upon the controversy waged furiously around these events; sufficient to say that the whole affair was mismanaged from the first, and even the combined movements on Cabul were not planned by Lord Ellenborough, who had superseded Lord Auckland as Governor-General, the two commanders being really *ordered to return within the Indian frontier, but the instructions left to their own discretion the most satisfactory way of accomplishing this, after relieving the garrisons at Jelalabad and Kandahar*. Both Generals came to the right conclusion, that to withdraw after a treacherous and crushing defeat without inflicting punishment would have

been dangerous to British prestige throughout the whole of Northern India; hence both columns, instead of *retiring*, advanced on Cabul. The results were, however, very unsatisfactory—as must be expected when armies are supported by a weak and vacillating policy—for, although the garrisons at Jelalabad and Kandahar were relieved, the prisoners then in Afghanistan released, and a portion of the city of Cabul destroyed, no provision was made for securing the fundamental object of the whole mismanaged affair, namely, a friendly Amir. In fact, the power of Dost Mohammed and his son Akbar Khan was enhanced rather than crushed by the campaign.

Following closely upon the First Afghan Expedition, came the Sind War in 1843, when that magnificent soldier, Sir Charles Napier, with 3,000 British troops, defeated 20,000 Baluchis at the Battle of Moini, broke completely the power of these Mohammedan Amirs, and annexed Sind. An outbreak at Gwalior was suppressed in the same year.

Fortunately Lord Hardinge, a veteran of the Peninsular and Waterloo campaigns, succeeded Lord Ellenborough in 1844. A firm hand, trained in the school of the "Iron

Duke," was urgently needed, for scarcely had this reign begun before the Sikh army, 60,000 strong, crossed the Sutlej and invaded the territory of British India.

Sir Hugh Gough commanded the British Army, but the Governor-General was present in person, and in less than a month the fierce battles of Mudki, Firozshah, Aliwal, and Sobraon had been fought. At last the magnificent Sikh Army, which had been trained by Europeans, was completely defeated and driven back across the Sutlej. Lahore, the seat of the Sikh power, was captured, but only a small portion of the country annexed, the remainder being incorporated in a Protected Sikh State under Dhulip Singh, with Sir Henry Lawrence as British resident.

In 1848 commenced the rule of one of India's greatest administrators, Lord Dalhousie. Great alike in peace and war, he laid the foundations of the vast network of railways — 40,000 miles — which now traverse all parts of our Indian Empire; he introduced the telegraph and the cheap postage systems; he urged forward steam communication with Great Britain *via* the Red Sea; he opened the Ganges Canal; and

he annexed more territory than any other Governor-General with the exception of Clive.

The first important military event in the new reign was the Second Sikh War in 1848–49, which broke out a few months after Lord Dalhousie's arrival. The Protected Sikh State, instituted by Lord Hardinge, proved a failure; internal dissension was the cause of continual trouble, and constituted a standing menace to the peace of India; but the direct cause of this war was the assassination of two British officers in Multan.

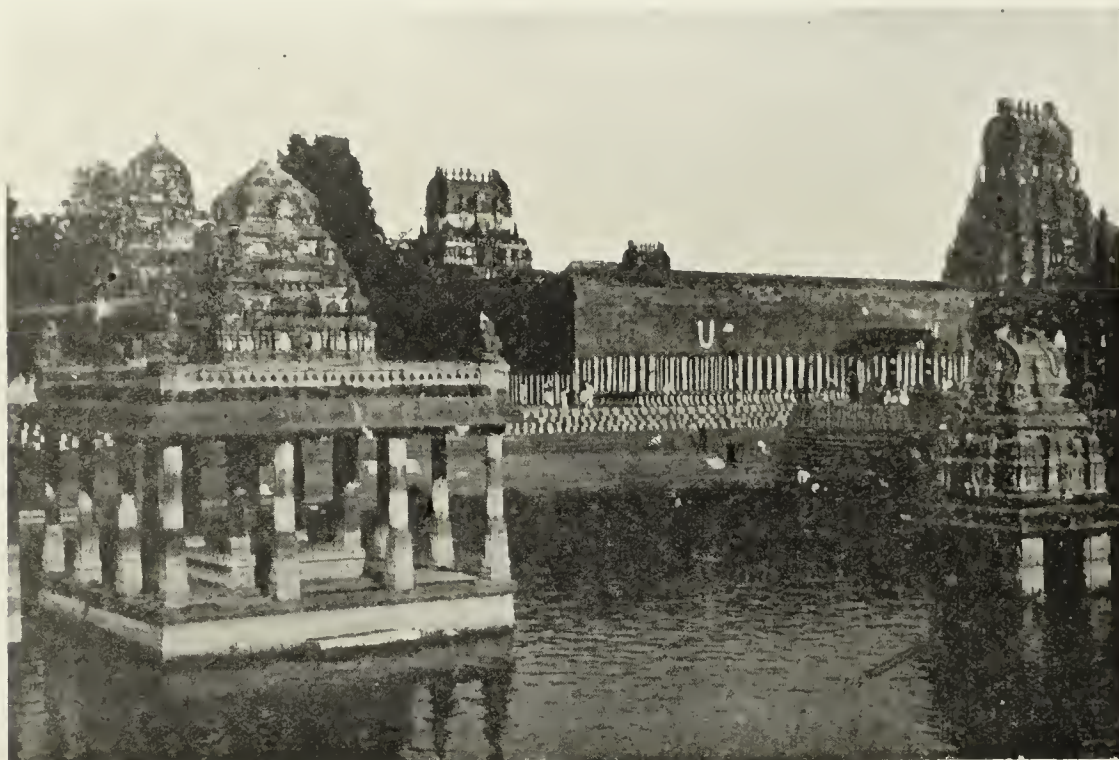
Again the great Sikh Army was mobilised, but this time they were assisted by their hereditary enemy, the Afghans, under Dost Mohammed. Lord Gough, the victor of the campaign on the Sutlej, again commanded the British; but on the field of Chilianwallah the day went against the British arms, for although no actual defeat was sustained, the losses were decidedly heavy, and the *morale* of the enemy was strengthened rather than shaken. At Goojerat, however, the Sikh Army was completely routed, and the whole Punjab annexed.

The peaceful settlement of this huge territory may be ranked among the most brilliant



Photo by kind permission of the Patiala Government

THE SUMMER RESIDENCE OF H.H. THE MARAJAH OF PATIALA



Photo, H. F. Knapp, F.R.G.S.

SRI VARADHARAJASIVAMI TEMPLE, CONJEEVARAM, SOUTHERN INDIA

achievements of Lord Dalhousie's, or, in fact, any other administration in India. Some few years later, when the Mutiny spread over a large portion of the Peninsula, the Punjab held aloof, and actually furnished troops for the siege of Delhi, so wisely and so well had it been governed in the meantime. No little praise for this splendid work is due to the two Lawrences, Colonel Robert Napier (Lord Napier of Magdala, one of the greatest of British soldiers and military historians) and "Nicholson of the Sikhs."

In the speedy settlement of the Punjab the other important factors—factors that may be taken as the elementary rules in the extension of the *Pax Britannica* in all native states—were (1) the maintenance of the high prestige, military, political, judicial, moral, and financial, of the suzerain race; (2) lessening the burden of taxation on the shoulders of the weak; (3) the abolition of extortion; (4) the establishment of a simple, speedy form of justice adapted to local needs and understanding; (5) the enforcement of respect in all classes for life, honour and

property; and (6) a policy of non-interference with any religious or social custom, when such did not encroach upon the great laws of humanity.

The Second Burmese War, which broke out in 1852 owing to the ill-treatment of European merchants at Rangoon, and the inability of the British Government to obtain either redress or apology, resulted in the occupation of the sea coast provinces, including the lower valley of the Irrawaddy, from Rangoon to Prome. This gave to the British Indian Empire the largest and most fertile portions of Burma.

Lord Dalhousie's policy of taking over the administration of states on the death of a Raja who left no natural heir—known as the policy of "Lapse"—brought within British control the States of Satara (1849), Jhansi (1853), and Nagpur, which became the Central Provinces in 1853.* Several other small states came in this manner under direct British control.

The last act of Lord Dalhousie was the annexation of Oudh, which took place in

* This policy was opposed to the Hindu custom, which maintains that an *adopted son* takes the place of a natural heir, but as this custom was open to much abuse, and was ill-calculated to produce happiness in the native States, Dalhousie considered it better for the welfare of the people themselves to bring States under able British administration when no natural heir had any claims to be considered.

1856, and was due to this great proconsul's solicitude for the welfare of the millions suffering under the debased and tyrannous rule of a succession of Nawabs, whose private life

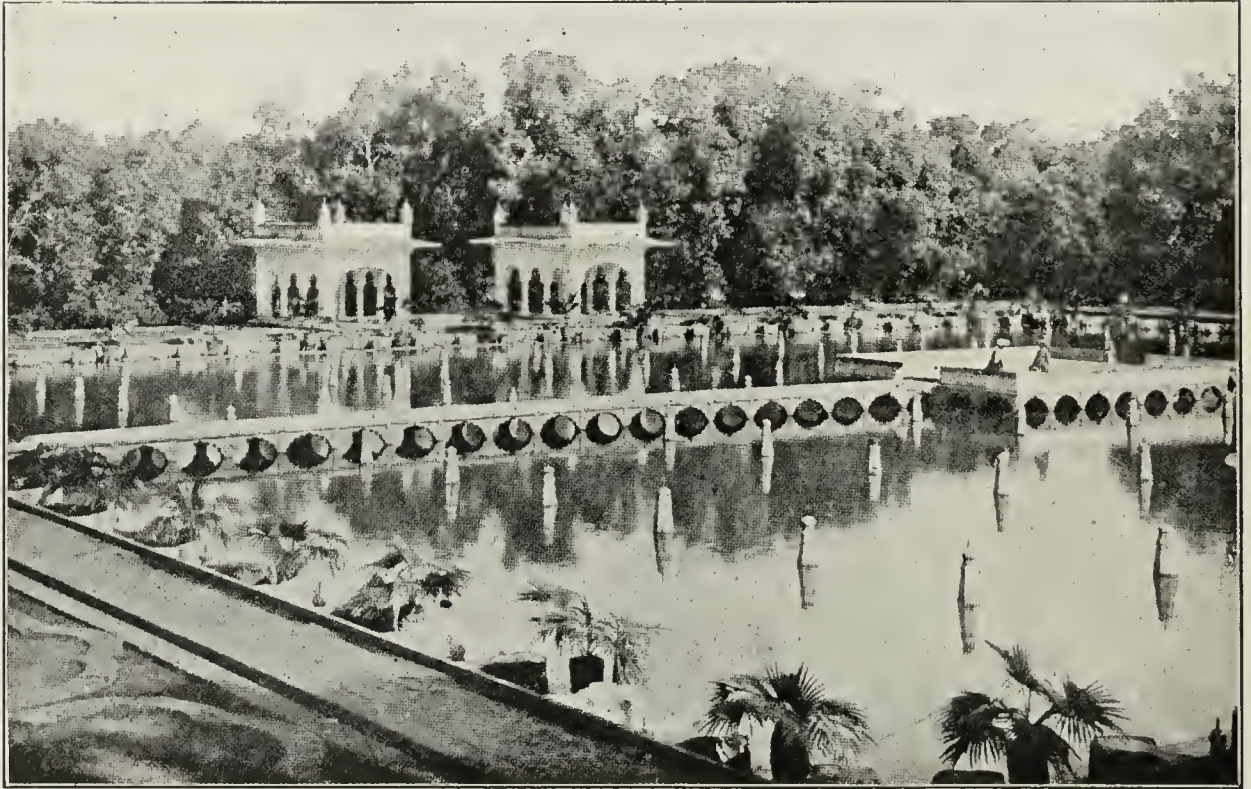
ram, afterwards Sir James Outram of Mutiny fame, then British Resident at Lucknow, to take over the direct administration of Oudh, which was accomplished without bloodshed.



HILL OF THE HOLY BEACON AND TEMPLE AT TIRUVANNAMALIA,
SOUTHERN INDIA

was immoral, and whose public actions were oppressive in the extreme. Lord Hardinge had remonstrated in vain ; and, after placing the matter before the Court of Directors, who hesitated but eventually sanctioned his plan, Lord Dalhousie ordered General Out-

The King of Oudh, after visiting Great Britain to protest against his deposition, retired to Calcutta, where he lived on a pension of £120,000 per annum. The curtain hanging before the next act was rent asunder by the outbreak of the Indian Mutiny.



IN THE SHALIMA GARDENS, LAHORE

BRITISH RULE IN INDIA.

To the casual reader of Indian history it may appear that (1st) scarcely a year passed without the whole country being plunged into the throes of war ; and that (2nd) India was conquered in the same way as Russia crushed Poland and Finland, or, in more remote ages, as Rome conquered Great Britain. This, however, is an illusion, born of failure to realise the magnitude of India—an area as great as the whole of Europe, exclusive of Russia. Furthermore, at the time when England commenced building an Empire in the East, India was but a conglomeration of mis-governed states, whose rulers were, in many instances, the first or second of their line ; for although there were hereditary customs and religions, which remain to this day, uninterfered with by the Imperial Government, there was no ancient dynasty nor any beloved ruler. The Mogul Empire, itself the outcome of an invasion, was crumbling under the rising power of the Mahrattas, who were divided against themselves ; the Punjab acknowledged neither, and each state was constantly in the grip of

internal dissension. From the commencement of the Company's Raj to the great Mutiny, it is true that few years elapsed in which military expeditions were not absolutely necessary in some portion of this vast field ; but, contrasted with the wars in Europe over a similar period, the bloodshed in the founding of the British Indian Empire was insignificant ; and nearly every state, really a nation in itself, taken individually, enjoyed years of unbroken peace and prosperity such as ancient history does not record in all its pages.*

England did not conquer India as Russia conquered Poland, because, first, there was no homogeneous nation to conquer, but only a large number of heterogeneous states whose inhabitants differed in customs and religion, and were ground down by oppressive laws ; second, even to this day many States are still under the control of their own Rajas, or Princes ; and it may come as a revelation to many to know that the number of British in the civil service of India—the great administrative body—hardly exceeds 1,000 in a population of 323,000,000 ! and also that

* As an example, Bengal, before the Indian Mutiny, had been in a peaceful and contented condition since the days of Warren Hastings—a period of eighty-five years.

much of the machinery of government is in the hands of able and loyal Rajas and native civil servants. Of the Imperial Indian Army only a very small proportion is British. England's position in India is, to be paradoxical, India's position in the Great Empire, of which she is, in general, a rich and loyal portion.

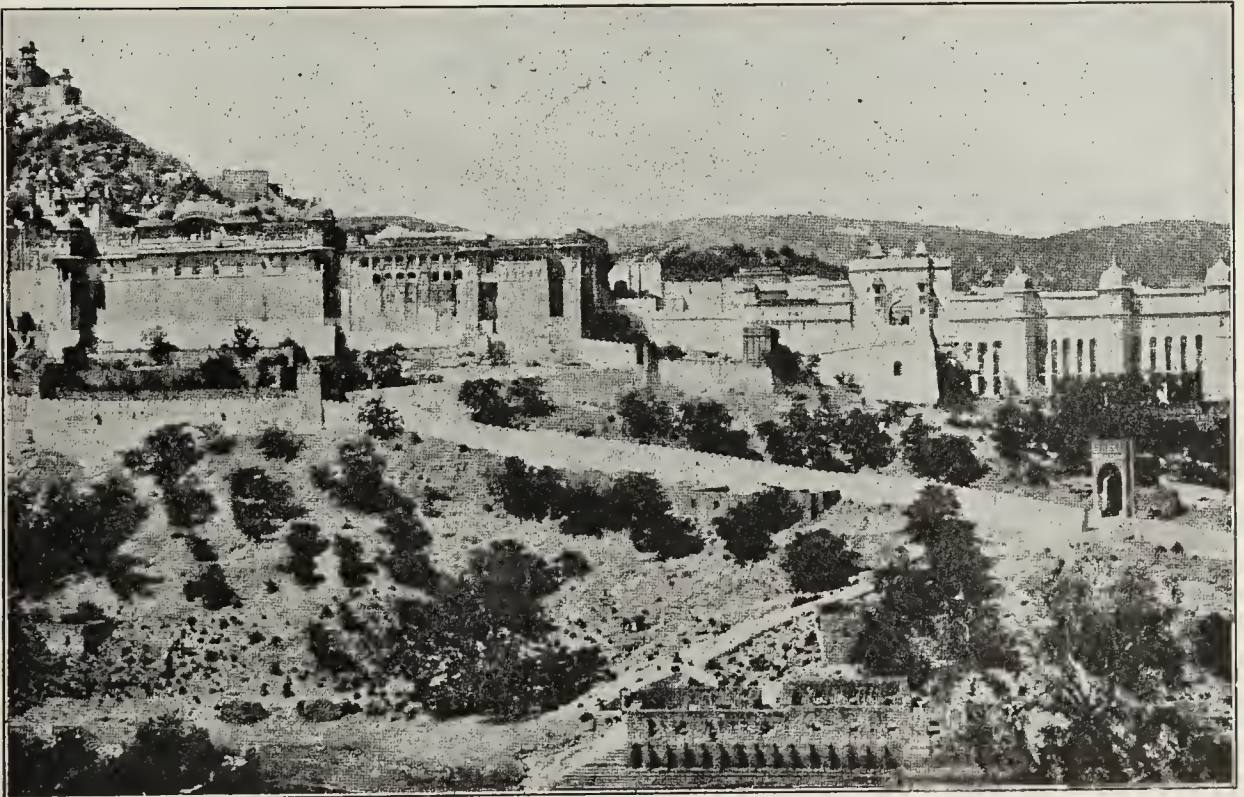
Reference to these facts is made here, before entering upon the Mutiny, which gave the death blow to the administration of the East India Company, and from which dates the British Empire in India, in order to show that, although the great Sepoy rising of 1857 spread over a considerable portion of the country, it was by no means a rising of the whole population of India against the English, as many still suppose, and that the absence of any conquered and oppressed homogeneous race, or dethroned ancient monarchy, combined with the great differences of caste, religion, language, custom, and administration (Native and British), makes a great uprising from the Himalayas to Cape Cormorin against the British Raj without grave cause very unlikely in the future. Local dissensions, however—fostered

by agitators of a class not unknown in Europe—may possibly create disturbances even now, although India's millions have learned to appreciate the prosperity and freedom accruing from British rule.

THE MUTINY.

Lord Canning arrived in India as Governor-General in 1856, and a year later occurred the mutiny of the Native Bengal Army. The contributory causes of this outbreak were many, and most of them seem trivial to the European mind. There was a growing discontent created by the grievances of dethroned Rajas, whose downfall had been caused by maladministration, and who used the handsome pensions allowed them by the Company to promote sedition by spreading among the ignorant populace the idea that the ancient customs of India were to be uprooted and Western ways enforced by law ; as proof of this they pointed to the telegraph, the rapidly increasing railway lines, the postal service, and all the other beneficial introductions of the time.

In Bengal, the seat of the British power, in the newly annexed territory of Oudh and

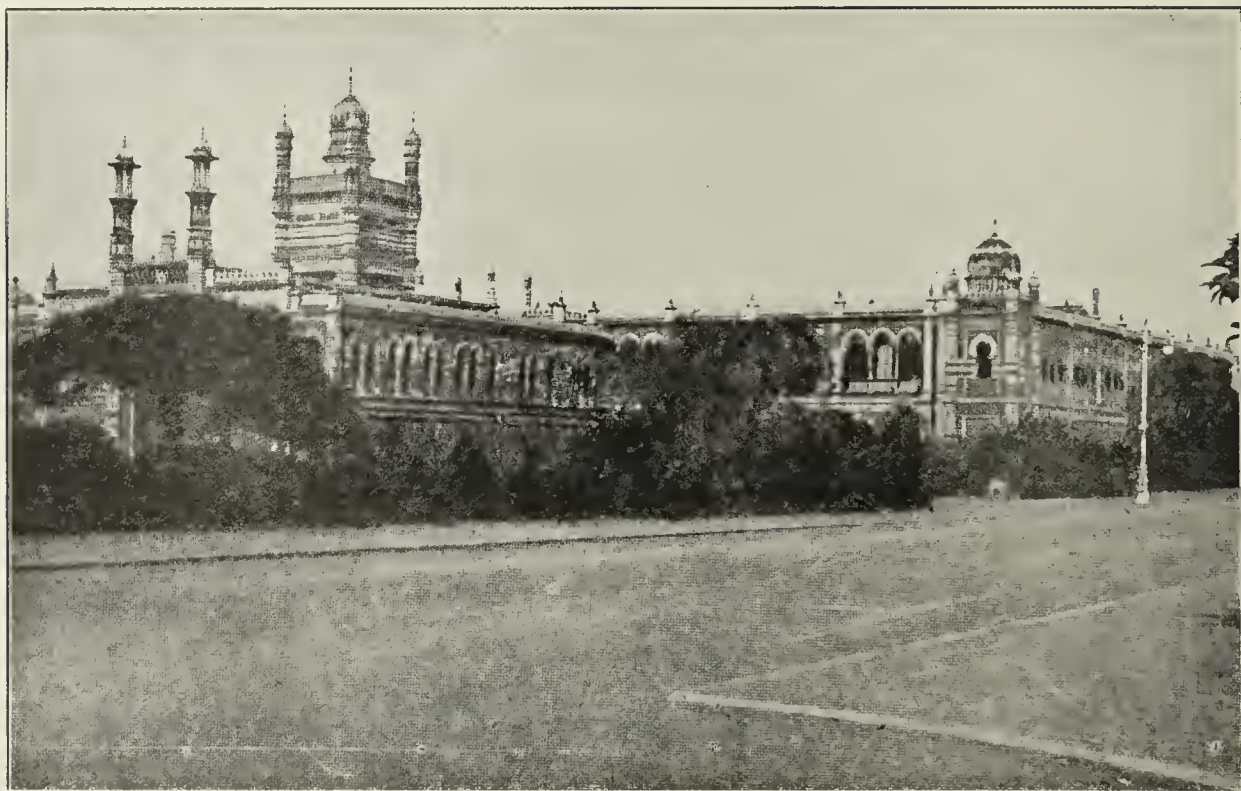


AMBER PALACE AND FORT, JAIPUR

the North-West Provinces, this seditious movement caused widespread disaffection, worked upon by agitators, who harped continuously upon three themes, one of which was the old prophecy that, in a hundred years from the Battle of Plassey (1757), the British Raj would fall ; and the other, by far the more dangerous, the spreading of the rumour that the cartridges served out to the Sepoy regiments had been greased with the fat of cows, which is the sacred animal of the Hindus. The effect this had among the Sepoys of the Hindu faith being perceived,

in less than a month, and they would be left to dictate terms to the weak Mogul Emperor, whom they proposed to set up. In addition to this, there were dazzling possibilities of loot and rapine, which quickly appealed to the criminal element, and made them eager and willing emissaries of the spirit of revolt.

The East India Company and the British Government were, also, not free from blame. Arsenal, with large stores of arms and ammunition, were left in the hands of native guards ; the garrisons of white troops had



CHEPAUK PALACE, MADRAS

a further rumour was circulated, that the fat of pigs had also been used, an idea abhorrent alike to the Mohammedan and the Hindu.

At the time these rumours were spread, the Sepoys of the Bengal Native Army were suffering from that dangerous malady, a "swollen head." They believed that it was entirely due to their efforts that the Punjab had been conquered ; that Britain had been crippled by the Crimean War, and could send but few reinforcements, and that without them the English would be exterminated

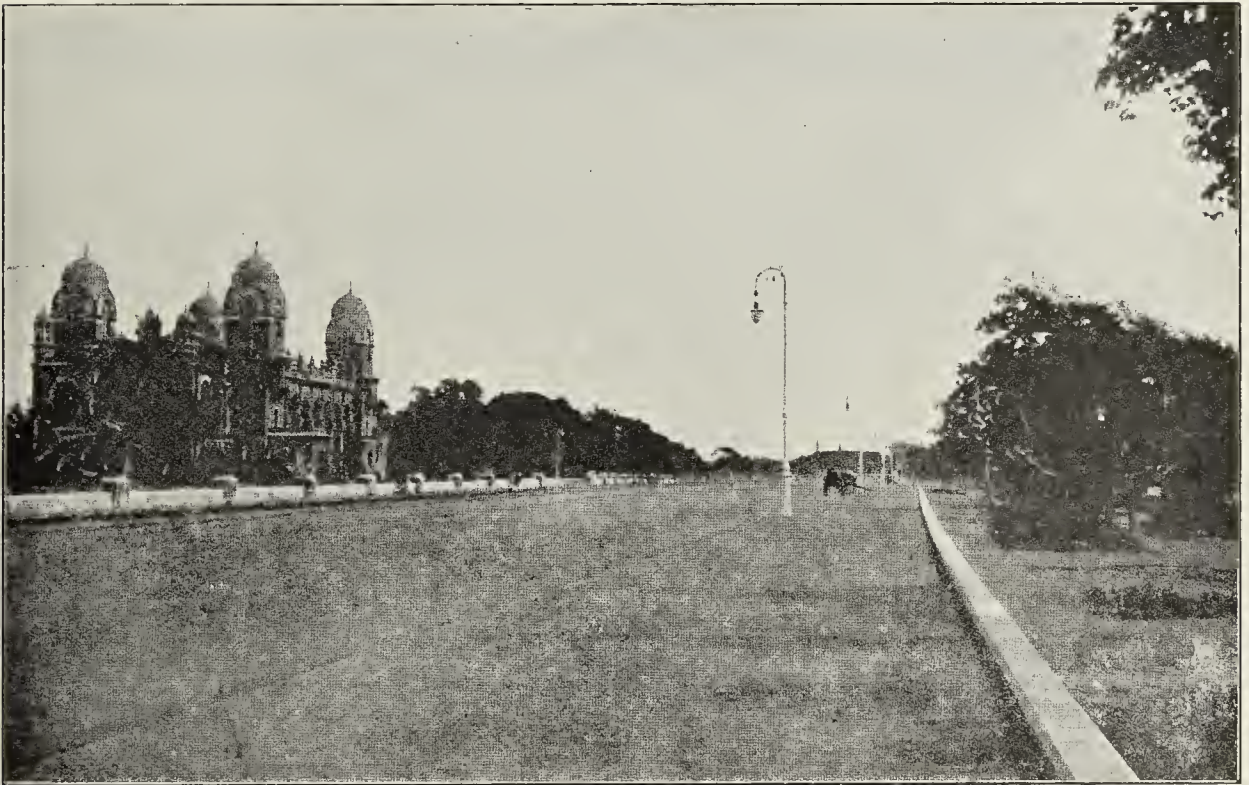
been reduced far below the standard deemed necessary for the security of our position in India ; and in the civil service and army alike only the lower grades were open to educated and ambitious native gentlemen. Although these, and many other causes, contributed to the outbreak of mutiny, the accusations brought against English officers of native regiments, for placing undue confidence in their men, even when the mutiny was spreading, is as unjust as it is ignorant. They were but a few amidst an armed multitude, and could only hope to hold back their own

regiments by showing that they were willing and ready to stake their lives on their men remaining "true to their salt." It must be remembered that the native armies of Madras and Bombay remained loyal, and that the Punjab actually furnished troops for the siege of Delhi.

The first act in the tragedy of the Mutiny occurred at Meerut, on the afternoon of Sunday, 10th May, when the Sepoys rose in open revolt, and with mad fanaticism rushed through the cantonments, killing the few Europeans who were there. Before the

for, beyond acquainting the authorities at Delhi of the outbreak and the probable approach of the mutineers, nothing was done that night to check their advance, and the moment for quick and effective action, which might have prevented the spread of revolt and the terrible massacre of Europeans at Delhi, was lost for ever.

The native population of Delhi broke into open rebellion the following morning, and committed fearful atrocities on the white residents. The mere handful of officers and officials could only blow up the magazine



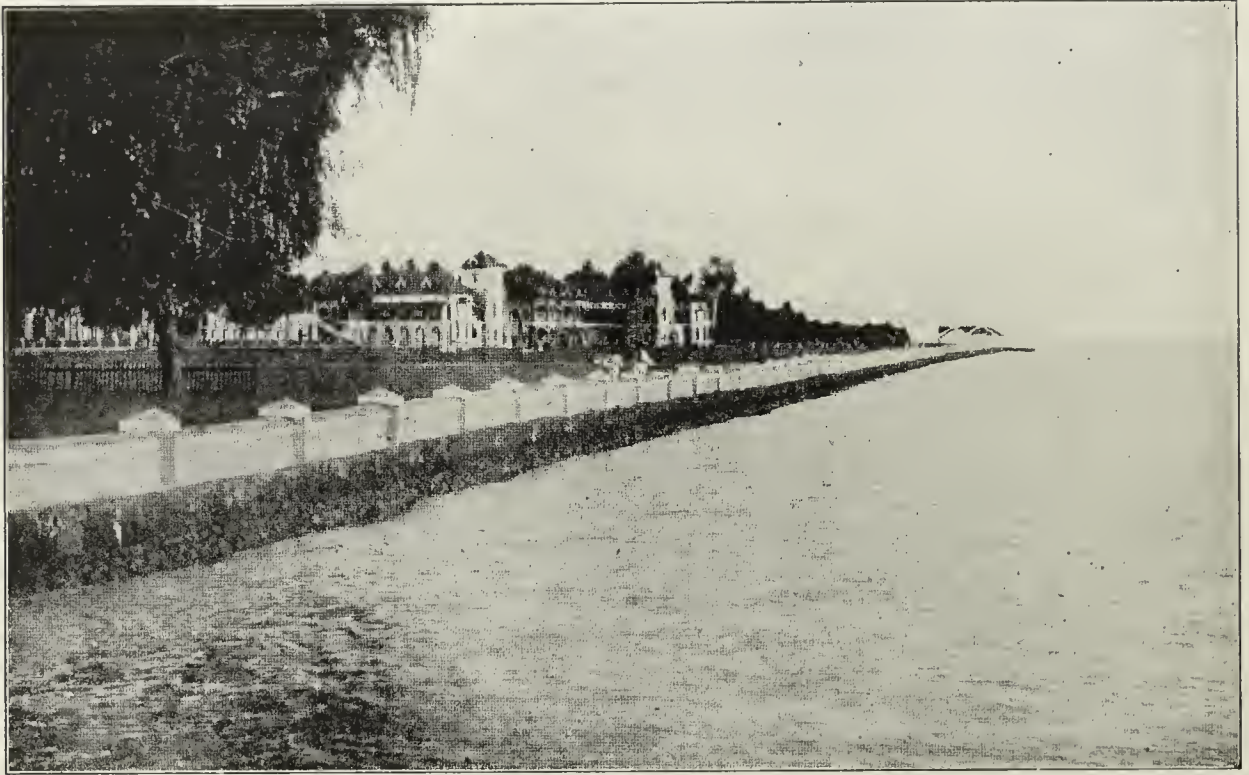
SENATE HOUSE AND MARINA, MADRAS

strong garrison of white troops could be mobilised the mutineers had released the prisoners in the jail, and had disappeared in a cloud of dust, on the road to the great city of Delhi.*

An unaccountable indecision seemed to take possession of those in command of the Meerut garrison, then the strongest in Northern India ; consisting of a large number of British cavalry, artillery and infantry ;

and rescue a few, but, unfortunately, by no means all of the women and children. The fate of many is hidden in obscurity. The wave of mutiny spread, like the wind of the monsoon, and within a few days the whole of Oudh, the North-West Provinces, and portions of Bengal, were ravaged by fanatic hordes. But even in this dark hour there were examples on every hand of the devotion of individual soldiers for their officers, ayahs

* It being late on Sunday afternoon, many of the white troops, and women and children, were either at church, or away from the bungalows in the cantonments.



THE PUBLIC OFFICES, COCHIN, SOUTHERN INDIA

for the children in their charge, and loyal princes who opened the doors of their palaces to refugees.

When the Sepoys mutinied at Cawnpore, on the 6th June, the few British troops and local officials, with a large number of women and children, hastily retired within the shelter of ill-chosen entrenchments. After withstanding a siege of nineteen days, in the scorching heat of June, they trusted to the promise of a safe conduct to Allahabad, given by the notorious Nana Sahib, who had assumed the leadership of the mutineers.

The besieged, numbering about 450, embarked in boats on the Ganges for the journey to Allahabad. Scarcely had the first few boats reached mid-stream, before a murderous fire was opened upon them from the bank. Only four men, who succeeded in reaching the opposite side of the river, where they were sheltered by a friendly Raja, survived this treacherous massacre, with the exception of 125 women and children, many of whom had not embarked. These were kept in cruel confinement, until the 15th July, when they, too, met an even worse fate in "The Bloody Well of Cawnpore."

A column under General Havelock was then fighting its way to their relief, but, unfortunately, arrived too late. The soldiers here, as in all parts of India, cried bitterly for revenge, and the fighting was fierce, no quarter being asked or given. The relieving forces, under Havelock, Outram, and Campbell, became armies of vengeance. Mutineers taken prisoners were everywhere blown from the guns; and even had the generals wished to do so it would have been difficult to hold the troops completely in check. A grim determination took possession of all ranks, and small columns fought their way, foot by foot, through country infested by thousands of rebels, until every beleaguered garrison was relieved, and the mutiny crushed out.

A Lucknow, Sir Henry Lawrence, realising the danger, had fortified and provisioned the Residency and surrounding buildings, in which all the Europeans took shelter, with a single British regiment, on 2nd July. The siege had just commenced when Sir Henry Lawrence was killed by a shell, and Colonel Inglis took command.

After enduring the terrible hardships of a siege lasting eighty-five days, in the heat of

an Indian summer, there arrived the relieving forces of Havelock and Outram; but the large number of women, children, and wounded in the Residency, and the masses of rebels pressing in on all sides, prevented a withdrawal, and a new siege commenced, which was not finally raised until the arrival in the following November of a strong column under Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde.

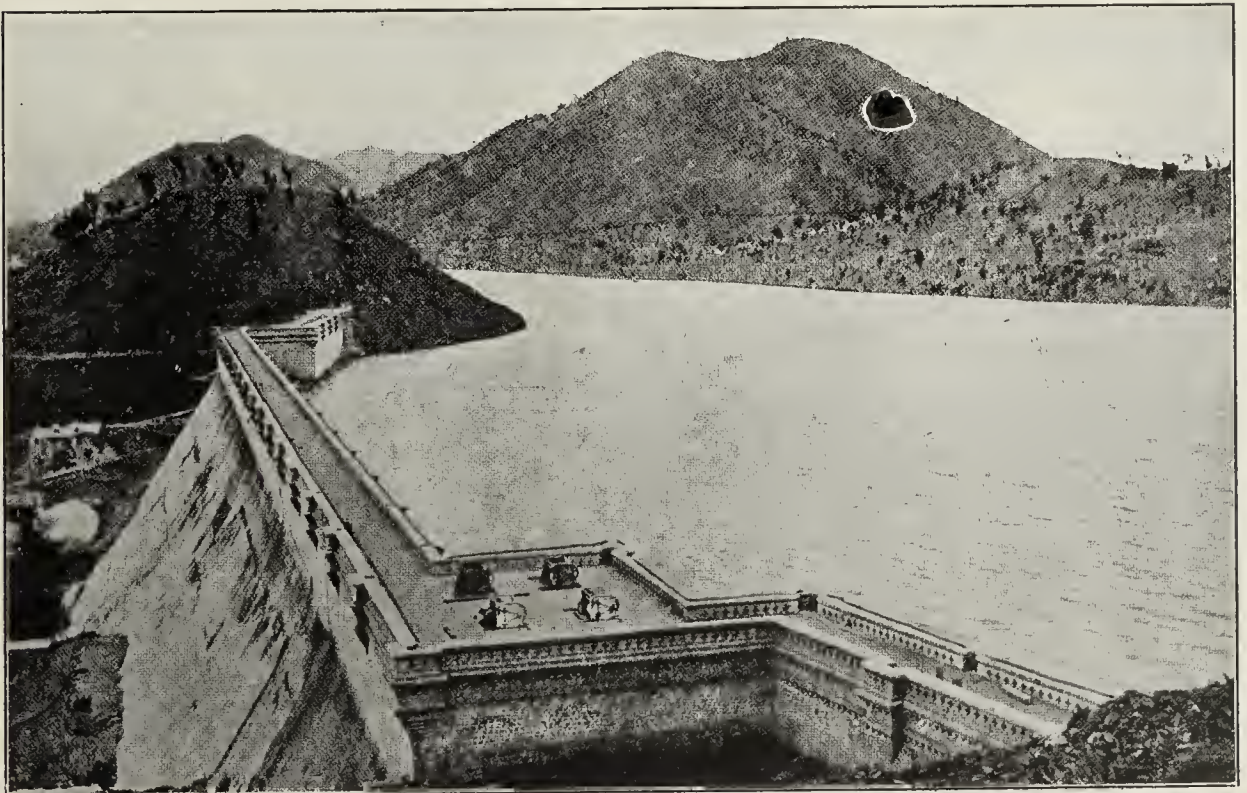
Delhi, the erstwhile capital of the old Mogul Emperor, set up by the Sepoys after the outbreak at Meerut, was invested by British troops about one month after the commencement of the Mutiny. By the occupation of this, the Royal city of India, the mutineers had given a wonderful impetus to the spread of the revolt, and it was deemed necessary by the British to effect its recapture as speedily as possible; but the forces then available were insufficient, and, although the "Ridge" was occupied on 8th June, it was not until after Nicholson, with his loyal Sikhs, had come down from the Punjab, and raised the strength of the

besieging army to about 8,000 men, that the final combined assault took place on 14th September.*

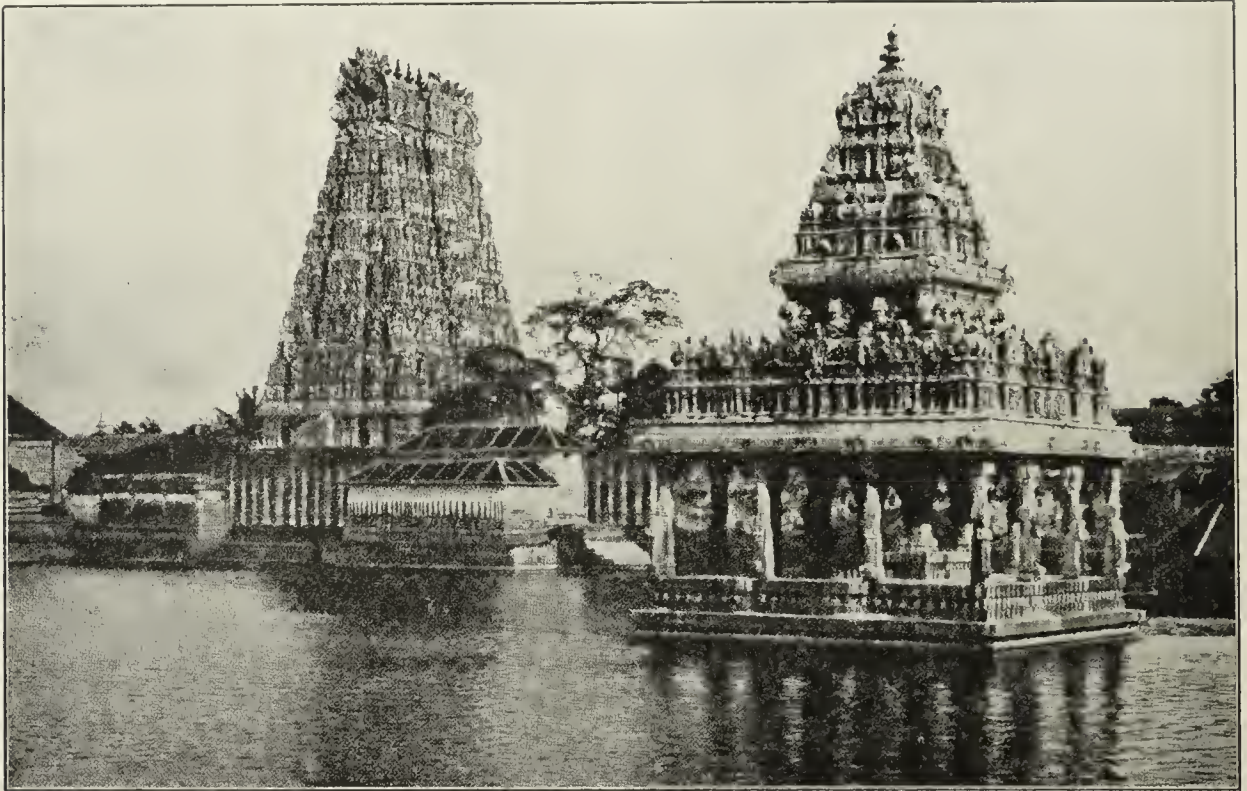
This walled city was held by 30,000 mutineers, and even after an entrance had been effected, at great loss, it took six days of fierce fighting before Delhi was again in the possession of the British. The Mogul Emperor and his sons fled, but were captured by Hodson, the brave leader of irregular cavalry, who was compelled to shoot the traitorous princes to prevent their being rescued by the mob which surrounded the small escort. The aged Emperor was sent a prisoner to Burma.

After the fall of Delhi, and the final relief of Lucknow, the spirit of the Mutiny was crushed, although fighting continued in portions of the country, for many months. Sir Colin Campbell, after a determined struggle, succeeded in pacifying Oudh, where the Begum and Nana Sahib had caused the whole population to join in the revolt, which, fortunately, was not so much the case in other parts. In Central India, Sir Hugh

* Nicholson "fighting fell" at the storming of Delhi.



THE MARI KANAVE DAM, MYSORE



SUSHANDRUM TEMPLES, TRAVANCORE

Rose, with an army from Bombay, succeeded in overcoming the resistance of the followers of the notorious Tantia Topi after a protracted, though well-conducted campaign, which lasted until the middle of 1859. These were the closing scenes in the historic Mutiny, which cost the Government of India over 40 millions sterling.

FORMATION OF THE BRITISH INDIAN EMPIRE.

At a Durbar held at Allahabad, on 1st November, 1858, it was announced to the princes and people of India, by Lord Canning—to whose lot had fallen the double task of crushing the Mutiny and, afterwards, of pacifying the country—that Her Majesty Queen Victoria had assumed the Government of India. The Charter which gave to the Crown of Britain these vast dominions also gave to the people of India a fuller measure of protection and religious tolerance. The "right of adoption" was granted to the princes and chiefs; the company's military forces were re-organised and amalgamated with the Royal Army and the financial position was improved by a better organised

Customs Service and the imposition of duties on income and licences. A paper currency was also created. The administration of the Indian Empire passed out of the hands of the Court of Directors of the Honourable East India Company, whose life of usefulness had extended over a period of 258 years, into those of the Secretary of State for India and Council, by whom it is now exercised, in the name of the Emperor. The Governor-General received the title of Viceroy, and administers with the aid of a Council and a Legislature (see *Government*).

After successfully accomplishing the difficult task of resettling the country, Lord Canning returned to England in 1862, being succeeded by Lord Elgin, whose rule was, unfortunately, terminated by his death in the following year.

The next to mount the Viceregal Throne was Sir John (afterwards Lord) Lawrence, by whose efforts, and by those of his lieutenants, among whom Nicholson and Edwards stand conspicuous, the warlike Sikh nation of the Punjab had been induced to refrain from joining in the Mutiny, contrary to the confident anticipation of the intriguers at

the Court of Delhi; nay more, the Sikhs furnished troops for the siege of the Royal City, after it had fallen into the hands of the mutineers. This loyalty, displayed when British prestige in India was at its lowest ebb, afforded proof of the exceptionally able manner in which the Punjab had been governed since its annexation, and also of the contented and loyal nature of the population.

During this rule (1864-69) occurred the Bhutan War, created by the unavoidable annexation of the Bhutan Dewars, and the Orissa famine which caused such an enormous loss of life among the natives of that state. Lord Lawrence created some surprise by laying down the principle that, in future, the Government officials would be expected, in all circumstances, to prevent death by starvation, for which they would be held responsible.

The settlement of the affairs of Afghanistan, which had for some time been in a state of civil war, claimed the attention of both Lord Lawrence and his successor, Lord Mayo, who was present at the Ambala Durbar

when Sher Ali was recognised by the British Government as the Amir of Afghanistan.

Lord Mayo introduced the system of provincial finance, and was instrumental in the abolition of the "Customs lines," which were the cause of much annoyance, as they prevented the growth of commerce between British India and the Feudatory states. The strenuous and noble life of this great administrator was cruelly cut short by his assassination while on a visit to the convict settlement in the Andaman Islands.

Lord Northbrook was the next Viceroy. During his rule the Department of Finance was reorganised, and His Majesty, King Edward VII, then Prince of Wales, made a tour through India. This Royal visit did much to promote a strong and lasting feeling of loyalty among the princes and people. Three important events marked the viceroyalty of Lord Lytton, who took office in 1876. A great Durbar was held at Delhi in the following year, at which Queen Victoria was proclaimed *Empress of India*. This caused great rejoicing throughout the *Indian Empire*, but was unfortunately followed by a

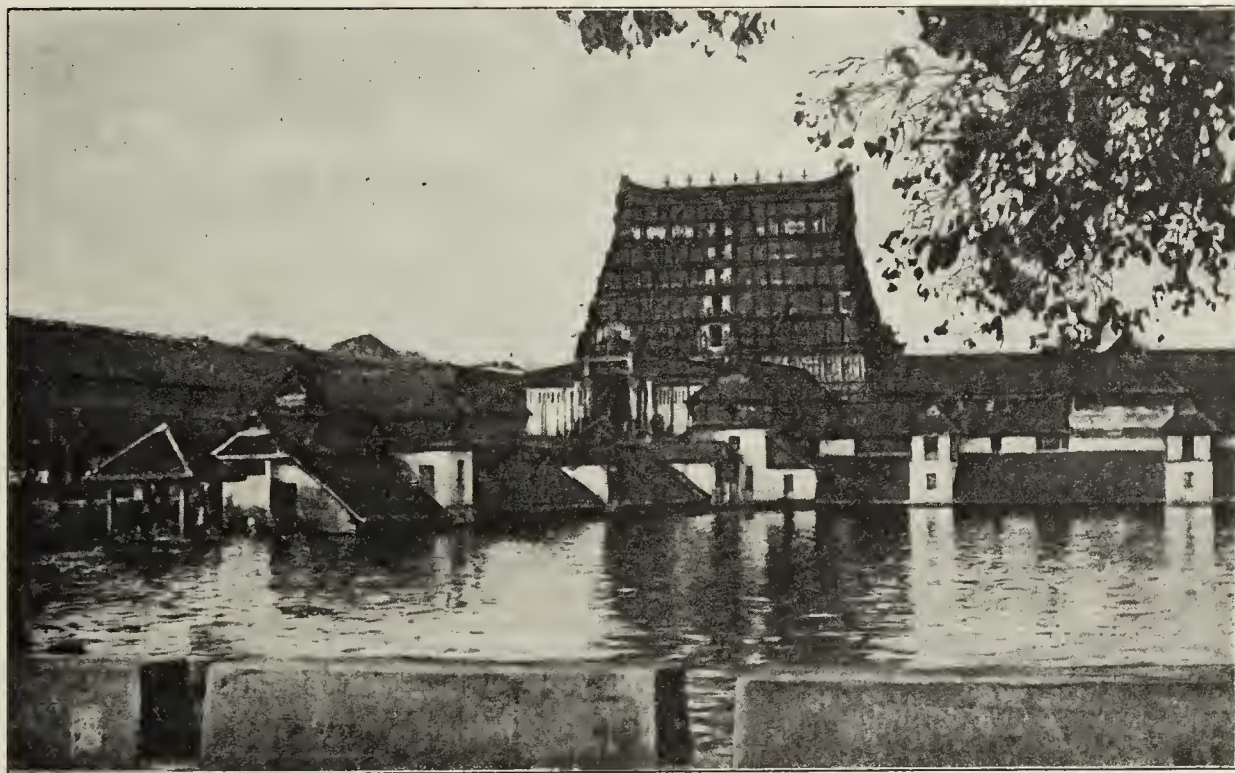


Photo by kind permission of the Government of Travancore
THE TEMPLE AND LAKE AT TRAVANCORE, SOUTHERN INDIA

severe famine in the south, while the affairs of Afghanistan once more gave trouble.

Again Russian influence gained the ascendancy at the Court of Cabul, notwithstanding the assurance of close friendship to the British given by the Amir, Sher Ali, at the Ambala Durbar. A British Mission was refused entrance to the Afghan capital, while a Russian Embassy was received and fêted. This insult brought on the Afghan wars of 1878 and 1880. In the former, three columns advanced on Cabul through the Khyber, Bolan, and Kuram Passes. Sher Ali fled into exile and died, but a treaty was concluded at Gandamak with his son Yakub Khan, and Sir Louis Cavagnari was left at Cabul, as British Political Resident. Some few months later he was treacherously murdered, with his escort, and a second campaign commenced with a slight British defeat, which was, however, retrieved by General Sir Frederick (afterwards Earl) Roberts, whose brilliant march from Cabul to Kandahar, and the subsequent defeat of the Afghan army, make a glorious page in the annals of the Empire.

Abdur Rahman Khan, a descendant of Dost Moḥammed, was recognised as Amir; and, in conjunction with Russia, the north-west frontier of Afghanistan was determined.

While these events were taking place beyond the Himalayas—the scientific frontier of India—Lord Ripon had assumed the reins of government. Many important reforms took place during his rule, notable among which were the extension of local government; the reformation, as a separate secretariat, of the department of agriculture; the abolition of restrictions on the vernacular, or native press; and the abolition of many customs duties, which was carried out by Lord Ripon's Finance Minister, Sir Evelyn Baring, afterwards Lord Cromer, whose excellent work in Egypt brought him both honour and fame.

In 1885 that great proconsul, the Marquess of Dufferin and Ava, became Viceroy of India. Beyond reforms in the internal administrations of the Empire, the most important event was the short campaign against King Theebau of Independent Burma, whose cruel rule was closed by his deportation to India on a liberal pension. This brought the whole of Upper Burma and the Shan States under British rule.

At this time an Anglo-Russian Boundary Commission was delimiting the Afghan frontier on the Oxus, when a party of Russians attacked some Afghans. This became known as the "Penjdeh Incident," and threatened a rupture of friendly relations between the two countries, which was, however, happily averted. The incident produced an outburst of loyalty throughout India, and showed the vital necessity for the impregnable defence of the northern frontier.

The Jubilee of Her Majesty Queen Victoria, in 1887, was the occasion of great rejoicing throughout the Indian Empire. The Marquess of Lansdowne was appointed Viceroy in 1888; and, in conjunction with Earl Roberts, then Commander-in-Chief, gave immediate attention to strengthening the defences of the north-west frontier, which has resulted in the passes leading to Afghanistan being secured against invasion.

The loyal offers of men and money made by the Princes of India at the time of the "Penjdeh Incident" induced Lord Lansdowne to accept their assistance by the formation of native regiments maintained entirely by their own chiefs. Through the patriotism and generosity of the princes, many of whom lead their forces in person, these great additions to the strength of the Indian army do not add to the military expenses of the Government of India (see *Imperial Defence*).

In domestic administration, Lord Lansdowne was equally active. The higher branches of the Civil and Military services were opened to natives; the Legislative Councils were increased; education was promoted; and a drastic reform effected in the currency laws. The only military event of importance which occurred during this rule was the suppression of an outbreak in the small state of Manipur, situated to the east of Bengal, where two British officers had been treacherously murdered while endeavouring to effect a settlement between rivals for the throne.

The frequent appearance of Russians on the Pamirs, that lofty and barren tableland beyond Afghanistan, from which the Hindu Kush and the Himalayas radiate, far in advance of their recognised sphere of influence, gave rise to serious apprehensions in Afghanistan as well as in India. Continued aggressions in this direction induced

the Government to take immediate measures for strengthening the British position in the mountainous country of Chitral, which dominates the descent from the lofty Pamirs towards the Punjab.

These difficult operations, in a wild and inhospitable country, were admirably carried out in 1891-2 by small bodies of regular troops assisted by the "Imperial Kashmir Contingent," but some three years later a rising took place in Chitral which made a more formidable expedition necessary. The rebellion was quickly suppressed, and garri-

ous regions assembled in thousands and attacked the various garrisons. The rugged nature of the country made offensive military operations extremely difficult, and it was found necessary for this Tirah campaign, as it has been named, to mobilise several strong expeditionary forces. Over 65,000 men were concentrated at various points; and advanced, in separate columns, into the mountain fastnesses which shielded the rebellious tribes. Much severe fighting took place before the rising was completely quelled.



STREET SCENE, JAIPUR

The beautiful Hawa Mahal Palace can be seen on the left

sons were stationed to guard the Malakand Pass, and also at Chakdara, and a road was opened from the military centre of Peshawar, in the Punjab, through the Lowari Pass, which greatly strengthened the British position.

The war-spirit was at this time active among the lawless hill tribes along the whole of this portion of the frontier, and a simultaneous rising took place in 1897. Afridis, Swats, Waziris, Mohmands, and the other warlike inhabitants of these wild mountain-

In the following year the Government of India assumed control of the Khyber Pass. Other measures were also adopted for safeguarding this important frontier of our Indian Empire.

While these troubles were being settled, Lord Lansdowne had been succeeded by the Earl of Elgin, during whose administration many portions of the land frontier of India and Burma were settled by demarcation.*

Owing to the failure of the rains, in 1896, a terrible famine was experienced in the

* Notably the frontiers with Russia on the Pamirs, Afghanistan, China, and Persia; as well as with France on the MeKong.

following year, which was felt over an area of more than 500,000 square miles. At one time, no fewer than 5,000,000 people were being assisted by the "Famine Relief Works," costing the Government, including loss of revenue, nearly Rs. 16,000,000; in addition to large sums subscribed by private charity, such as the "Mansion House Fund," which alone amounted to over half-a-million sterling. The loss of life from this widespread famine was, happily, only very small, owing to the careful arrangements which had been made to meet this dreaded enemy of India, and to the generous manner in which the coffers of the Government were thrown open, and enormous sums expended by private charity, to bring relief to the great foodless areas.

It is gratifying to note that, before the British Raj, a famine of this widespread character would have caused the death of many hundreds of thousands, as the population of the affected area exceeded 120,000,000, but, with the vast network of railway lines in operation, and the complete and generous arrangements of the Government, relief can now be poured in to any portion of India in a comparatively short space of time, thus reducing the loss of life to a minimum.

In addition to famine and frontier troubles, Lord Elgin's administration had to combat the spread of bubonic plague, which first visited Bombay in 1896, and spread to the Punjab, the North-West Provinces, and also to Calcutta, as well as to several other places; but the Bombay Presidency has been the worst sufferer, as the disease has continued there ever since.

Much trouble was experienced by the officers and others engaged in the difficult task of preventing the spread of this deadly scourge. The enforcement of the sanitary law and the elements of public hygiene was attended with grave risk of rebellion, owing to caste, the strength of religious prejudices and social customs. The native, or vernacular press published articles of a seditious and highly inflammatory character, which created public agitation and ill-feeling. The climax came on the night of the celebration of Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee, when two British officers were murdered at Poona. The Government decided to strike at the root of the evil. Criminal proceedings were

promptly instituted against the editors of seditious publications, and many were convicted under a somewhat complicated section of the Indian Penal Code. Public agitation, which had been worked up to a dangerous pitch by sedition-mongers, was quickly allayed.

After these events, and again during quite recent years, the laws prohibiting sedition have been strengthened, and a freer hand given to administrative officers to suppress agitation. This highly necessary course has been adopted after very careful consideration. It must be remembered that it is as easy for unscrupulous, and murderously inclined, agitators to bring the hot blood which courses through Indian veins to the boiling point of fanaticism and assassination, as it is for their counterparts to raise a half derisive cheer from the stolid crowds of Great Britain.

The other principal events of Lord Elgin's administration were: partial reform of the composition of the Indian army; a disastrous earthquake in Burma and Assam; and the formation of Legislative Councils in the Punjab and Burma.

Lord Curzon of Kedleston succeeded Lord Elgin in 1898, being the fourteenth proconsul to mount the Viceregal Throne since the formation of the British Indian Empire in 1858. His administration was one of continuous reform, and much of the whole fabric of Indian Government was reconstructed and revised.

Contemporaneously with the outbreak of the South African War came the disturbances in China, and one of the worst Indian famines recorded in history. India was called upon not only to supply British regiments for the operations in South Africa, but also to furnish native troops for service with the allied forces in China, and, at the same time, to combat a famine which affected an area of 500,000 square miles with a population of nearly 70,000,000.

Had it been advisable, or necessary, to call upon the Indian Army for general service in the Boer War, the Empire could easily have placed in the Transvaal and Orange Free State at least another 100,000 men, of good fighting material. Happily, this was unnecessary, and the activities of the Indian Army and the Imperial Service contingents of the Native States were confined to China,

where they did excellent service. Several native princes led their own troops in action.

Following closely upon these momentous events, came India's offer, which was accepted, to despatch troops to suppress the rising in Somaliland, where they again did yeoman service, and completely disproved the theory that the British Indian Army, and the Imperial contingents, would not willingly fight outside the Indian Empire.

Agricultural banks in India owe their inception to Lord Curzon, who established them in order to free the small cultivator

were revised and strengthened; a "Railway Board" was inaugurated, and a "Department of Commerce and Industry" formed, having as its head a new member of the Viceroy's Council.

Lord Curzon did not confine his activities to departmental reform, but reconstructed much of the political geography of our Indian Empire. The name of the "North-West Provinces and Oudh" was altered—by reason that the North-West Frontier lies far beyond their limits, and that they are really situated in the heart of India—to the more



THE KASHMIR GATE, DELHI

The damage to the walls occurred during the terrible days of the Indian Mutiny

from the continuous grip of the money-lender. The success of these institutions has now become apparent, and, as time goes on, their sphere of usefulness will doubtless be increased. During this administration, Commissioners were appointed to suggest reforms in the working and extensions of the railway systems, irrigation works, police services, revenue and agricultural departments, and also in the methods of native education. The advice of these commissions of enquiry was, in many cases, quickly acted upon. The police and educational systems

fitting title of the "United Provinces of Agra and Oudh." The "Hyderabad Assigned Districts," known as Berar, were leased in perpetuity to the Indian Government, and amalgamated with the Central Provinces. A reconstruction was carried out in the Punjab, from the administration of which were transferred the Trans-Indus territories of Peshawar, Kohat, Banu, and Dera Ismail Khan, as well as the District of Hazara; amounting in all to about 16,466 square miles with a population of 2,250,000. These were formed into a "North-West Frontier



GAJNER LAKE, BIKANIR

Province" under the direct control of the Governor-General-in-Council, in order to relieve the Punjab Government of the harassing administration of the turbulent frontier.*

Lord Curzon returned to England in 1904, but was reappointed at the end of that year. During his absence Lord Amthill acted as Viceroy *ad interim*.

Considering that the size and growth of Bengal had made it too large to be adequately administered as one province, Lord Curzon, by amalgamating a portion with the adjoining territory of Assam, created a new province called "Eastern Bengal and Assam." This caused a certain disaffection among the Bengalis, but was then deemed necessary for the better administration of that enormous and thickly populated province, which had an area of 151,543 square miles and a population of 80,000,000. These areas have since been again rearranged.

Lord Kitchener had become the Commander-in-Chief in 1902, and the reform and redistribution of the Indian Army was the great military event which took place during Lord Curzon's second administration. Owing, however, to a difference of opinion regarding certain military proposals made by Lord Kitchener, which were supported by the

Imperial Government, Lord Curzon resigned in 1905, after an administration pregnant with useful and abiding reforms.

During the winter of 1905-6, shortly after the appointment of Lord Minto as Viceroy, their Royal Highnesses the Prince and Princess of Wales made a State tour through India, visiting every portion of this vast Empire, from Bombay to Burma, and Mysore to the North-West Frontier, being everywhere received with loyalty and devotion.

It must not be supposed that the anarchical tendency of a few Bengalis, which exhibited itself more prominently during the years 1905-9, was a sign of general disloyalty on the part of the Indian people. For although sedition was rife in certain parts of India, and it was found necessary in 1907 to pass a Seditious Meetings Act, and also in the following year to strengthen the laws regulating the press and the manufacture of explosives, it was not through any widespread disloyalty to the King Emperor.

The natives of India, from the *royal* to the *raja*, are, by their religion, taught to be loyal to their chiefs. In Europe and America the assassination of kings and presidents is by no means uncommon, but in India attempts on

* The treaty with Afghanistan was renewed during the administration of Lord Curzon.

the life of rulers, even if their rule is oppressive, are of rare occurrence. Many years ago, when India had scarcely emerged from the stigma of the Mutiny, the great preacher, Keshub Chunder Sen, wrote of Her Majesty Queen Victoria : " She represents law, order, and justice, and is appointed by Providence to rule over us as a mother is appointed to look after her children. Therefore we love and honour her. A man who hates his Sovereign is morally as culpable as he who abhors and maltreats his father and mother. Sedition is rebellion against the authority of God's representative, and therefore against God. It is not merely a political offence, but a sin against Providence."*

During Lord Minto's administration several commissions were appointed to investigate thoroughly the conditions of factory labour, especially in the Bombay mills ; to suggest the best means of extending and improving the railways, and to advise on the possibilities of an extended system of administrative and financial decentralisation. The recommendations of these commissions were almost invariably carried into effect.

Notwithstanding the reforms of Lord Curzon and Lord Minto, and the measures taken to improve the lot of the Indian worker, sedition was considerably on the increase ; and investigations proved that much of the agitation in Bengal was fostered by illegally printed seditious native newspapers and pamphlets. In consequence, it was deemed necessary, in 1909-10, to pass a " Press Act " more strictly to control printing presses ; and, as the agitation assumed a decided anarchial tendency, and attempted assassinations were not uncommon, the " Seditious Meetings Act " was further strengthened, and its restrictions rigidly enforced.

In London and in Paris there were Indian extremists, who, by the printed matter they circulated in India, were largely responsible for the spread of sedition among the untutored masses. Many of these anarchists, whose cry was " India for the Indians," were students whose imaginative minds had been played upon by agitators making a living by sedition-mongering.

* Extract from the Rede Lecture, Cambridge University, given by Sir Francis Younghusband, K.C.I.E.



A WELL IN JODHPUR

A Royal Proclamation was issued in 1908, the fiftieth anniversary of the establishment of the British Indian Empire, promising extended self-government, which was carried into effect by the "Indian Councils Act of 1909." By this Act additional members were appointed to the Council of the Viceroy, and also to the Provincial Councils, both of which assemblies were given enhanced powers of discussion and suggestion. When this Act came into operation, in 1910, the elective principle was greatly extended, and

to announce his Coronation, and, at the same time, make known the intended transfer of the seat of Government from Calcutta to Delhi, which made necessary the rearrangement of certain Presidencies altered in the first instance by Lord Curzon.

Bengal, which was made a Governorship, was given back the Eastern Division which had been attached to Assam since 1905, and, as now constituted, includes five Bengal Divisions with a total area of 78,699 square miles and a population of 46,695,536, of



AN EVENING BAZAAR NEAR THE JUMNA MASJID, DELHI

many of the land-owning, professional, and agricultural classes, both European and native, were well represented.

The appointment of Lord Hardinge as Viceroy, in succession to Lord Minto, was welcomed by all on account of his exceptional qualifications.

One of the first acts of the Indian Legislative Council was the prohibition of the emigration of indentured Indian labour to Natal (*q.v.*), and, owing to the spread of sedition, principally in Bengal, a new Seditious Meetings Act was passed in 1911.

In December of the same year, H.I.M. King George V held a great Durbar at Delhi

whom 53 per cent. are Mohammedans and 44 per cent. Hindus. A new province, with an area of 83,181 square miles and a population of 34,022,189, was created by the amalgamation of Bihar, Chota - Nagpur and Orissa with the Sambalpur district, all of which at one time formed a portion of the unwieldy Bengal Presidency. Assam was made a separate Administrative area under a Chief Commissioner. These new provinces came into official existence in 1912.

Local Governments were granted further control over expenditure and appointments, upon the recommendation of the Decentralisation Commission; and the Public Services



A COUNTRY GIRL, MYSORE, SOUTHERN INDIA

of India were investigated by a Royal Commission.

During the State entry into Delhi, and the formal occupation of the new Government Headquarters in December, 1912, an attempt was made on the life of the Viceroy, which was happily unsuccessful.

military forces, but also the revenues and resources of their States at the disposal of the Imperial Government. This spontaneous outburst of patriotism was unfortunately marred by a few extremists who returned from the United States with revolutionary ideas, and succeeded in creating several



HINDU FAKIRS BY THE GANGES

Indian finance and currency was examined and reorganised by a Royal Commission, which had barely finished its work before the outbreak of the Great European War in August, 1914.

A wave of loyalty to the King Emperor passed over the whole of India, and nearly all the ruling chiefs placed not only their

ugly disturbances in the Punjab, which were quickly suppressed by stern measures taken under the Defence of India Act, passed in the early part of 1915.

On the North-West Frontier of India certain hostile tribes attempted a rising, but order was restored by vigorous military action. About this time the term of office



BY THE SACRED WATERS OF THE GANGES
Morning at the Manikarnika Ghat, Benares

of Lord Hardinge was extended, and proposals were put forward for constitutional reforms in India at the conclusion of the Great War.

Lord Chelmsford's term of office began in April, 1916, and a Commission was immediately appointed to inquire into the possibilities of future industrial development in India. In the following year civil unrest began to assume a definite form. Self-government or a measure of Legislative Control was demanded. Military measures were taken against the Mahsuds and Mohmands on the North-West Frontier, and the leaders of the Punjab and Burmese disturbances were sentenced.

While these events were taking place in India itself, three Indian representatives were attending the Imperial War Conference in London, and the forces of the Empire were fighting gallantly in several theatres of the Great War (*q.v.*). In 1917 the Secretary of State visited India to conduct a few personal enquiries into the problem of granting constitutional reform to a vast Empire peopled by over 300 different races, castes and creeds in the earliest stages of political development. It must be remembered that from time immemorial, long before the British Raj, they had been accustomed to autocratic rule, and the transition to be successful had to be conducted very slowly and cautiously.

About this time the Rowlatt Committee, which had been appointed early in 1917, discovered evidence that German agencies were behind the Bengal seditionists. In Berar, anti-Moslem riots broke out, and in Madras and Calcutta the Mohammedans organised disturbances. Primary education was made compulsory in Bombay, and greater freedom in matters of local government all over India was decided upon by the Central Authority. The influenza epidemic passed over the country causing the death of 7,000,000 people.

A Bill was passed in 1919 by the Imperial Parliament for giving effect to the proposals contained in the "Montague-Chelmsford" Joint Report (Secretary of State and Viceroy), which suggested wide constitutional reforms involving a Legislative Assembly for India.

The failure of the 1918 autumn crops caused considerable distress in India, but prompt relief measures prevented a famine.

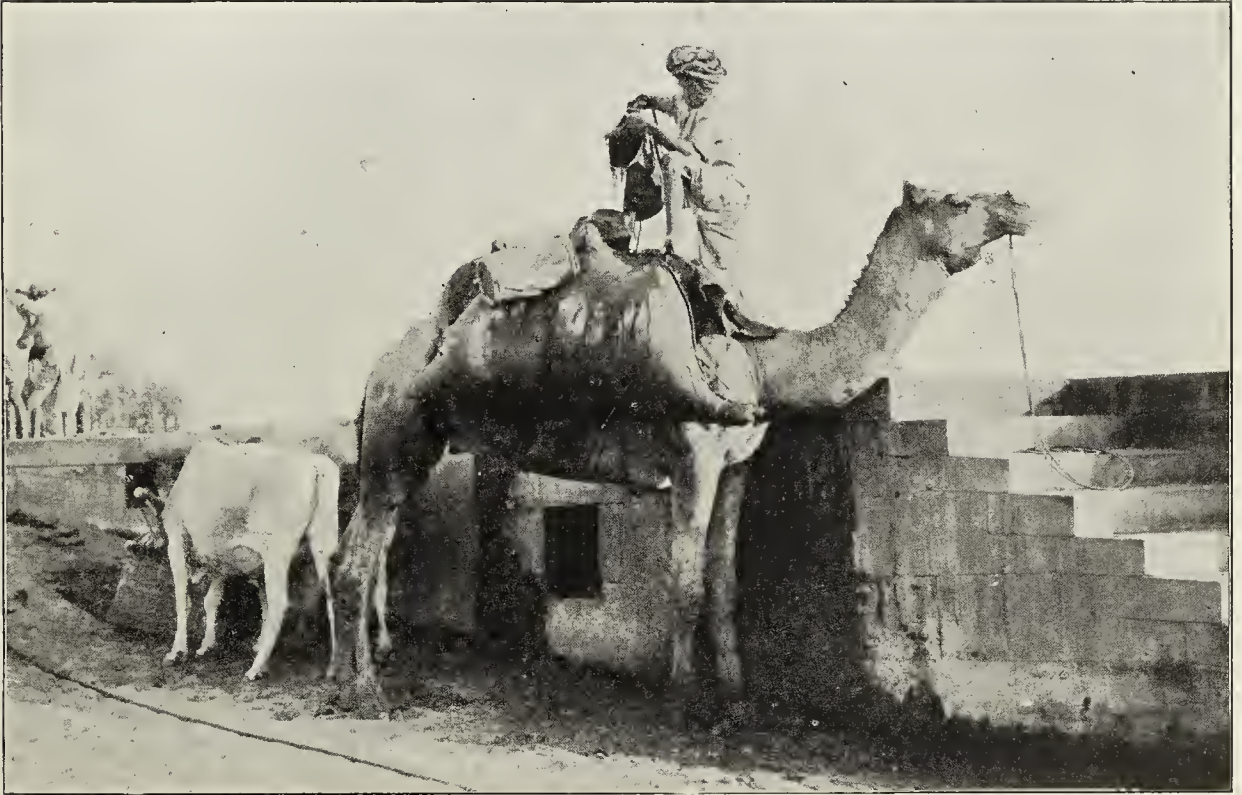
Further and more serious disturbances, which resulted in some fighting and casualties, occurred in the Punjab and in Delhi, the Imperial capital. These riots were entirely due to the "passive resistance" advocated by the fanatic Ghandi against certain Bills passed by the Government of India, on the recommendation of the Rowlatt Committee, for the suppression of sedition. The revolutionary movement spread to Bombay, but was suppressed, and a Commission was appointed to enquire into the whole matter and to report upon the measures adopted to prevent similar outbreaks.

Beyond the Northern Frontier of India trouble began with the murder of the Amir of Afghanistan, which was followed by an invasion of frontier tribes into Indian territory. Military measures on a considerable scale were necessary to check these inroads. The conduct of this campaign by the Indian Army was much criticised, and a Committee was appointed to enquire into the organisation of the forces and their readiness for emergencies. Other Committees were formed for the purpose of advising on (1) currency and exchange; (2) prison reforms; and (3) rearranging the Indian University and Secondary Educational System. The last of these three bodies was the Saddler Committee, which had been appointed earlier in the year but delivered its report about this time.

The appointment in 1919 of Lord Sinha, an Indian official, as Under Secretary of State in the Home Government (*q.v.*), and the Representation of the Indian Empire at the Peace Conference at Versailles by two distinguished Indians, the Maharajah of Bikanir and Lord Sinha, marked another step forward in the rightful participation of India in the Councils of the Empire.

The steadily increasing association of Indians in every branch of administration, recommended by the Montague-Chelmsford Report, was given a strong impetus by the passage through the Imperial Parliament of the Government of India Act, 1919-20. This important measure established Legislative Government in India, and laid down the rules for the constitution of the Central and Provincial Parliaments. (see *Governments*).

Unfortunately one revolutionary section of the community, under the notorious Ghandi,



GLIMPSES OF INDIAN LIFE

(1) Camel as water carrier in the Rajputana Desert

(2) Types of Indian conveyances

commenced a policy of non-co-operation, and obstructed the Government in the carrying out of these reforms. This, combined with Bolshevik propaganda, produced a measure of unrest in various parts of India, but the Government had the support of the Moderate Party.

Lord Sinha, the able Indian Administrator, who had been Under Secretary of State in the Home Government and Representative at the Peace Conference was appointed the first Governor of the new Province of Bihar and Orissa. About this time representatives from the Amir of Afghanistan visited India with the object of discussing the resumption of more friendly relations. The Mahsuds of the North-West Frontier continued their guerrilla warfare throughout the year and, in consequence, the Viceroy decided upon the occupation of Waziristan, and the extension of the railway from Jaurud towards the Khyber.

In the domain of domestic affairs a Commission was appointed to enquire into many industries and trades with a view to making India commercially more self-supporting, and also to ascertain whether the adoption of a preferential tariff would benefit the country. Other Committees were formed to (1) improve the conditions and pay of both European and Indian in the Government Service; (2) further the employment of Indians in the administrative services; and (3) to enquire into the administration of the railways.

Simultaneously with the appointment of these new Committees some of the previously appointed bodies commenced presenting their reports. First came the Exchange and Currency Committee, which advised the linking of the Rupee to the Gold Standard and a rate of exchange equivalent to one-tenth of the gold contents of a sovereign (*i.e.* Rs. 10 = £1). This recommendation was adopted. In order to increase banking facilities steps were taken to found the Imperial Bank. A High Commissioner for India in London was appointed with an establishment, separate from the India Office, and responsible to the Government of India for Agency Work.

Then came the report of the Committees of Enquiry into the condition of the Indian Army and the Medical Service. The former laid down the part to be played by India in the general scheme of Imperial Defence and

then proceeded to detail the steps considered necessary to increase the efficiency of the Administration and to attract to the various corps the best type of soldiers.

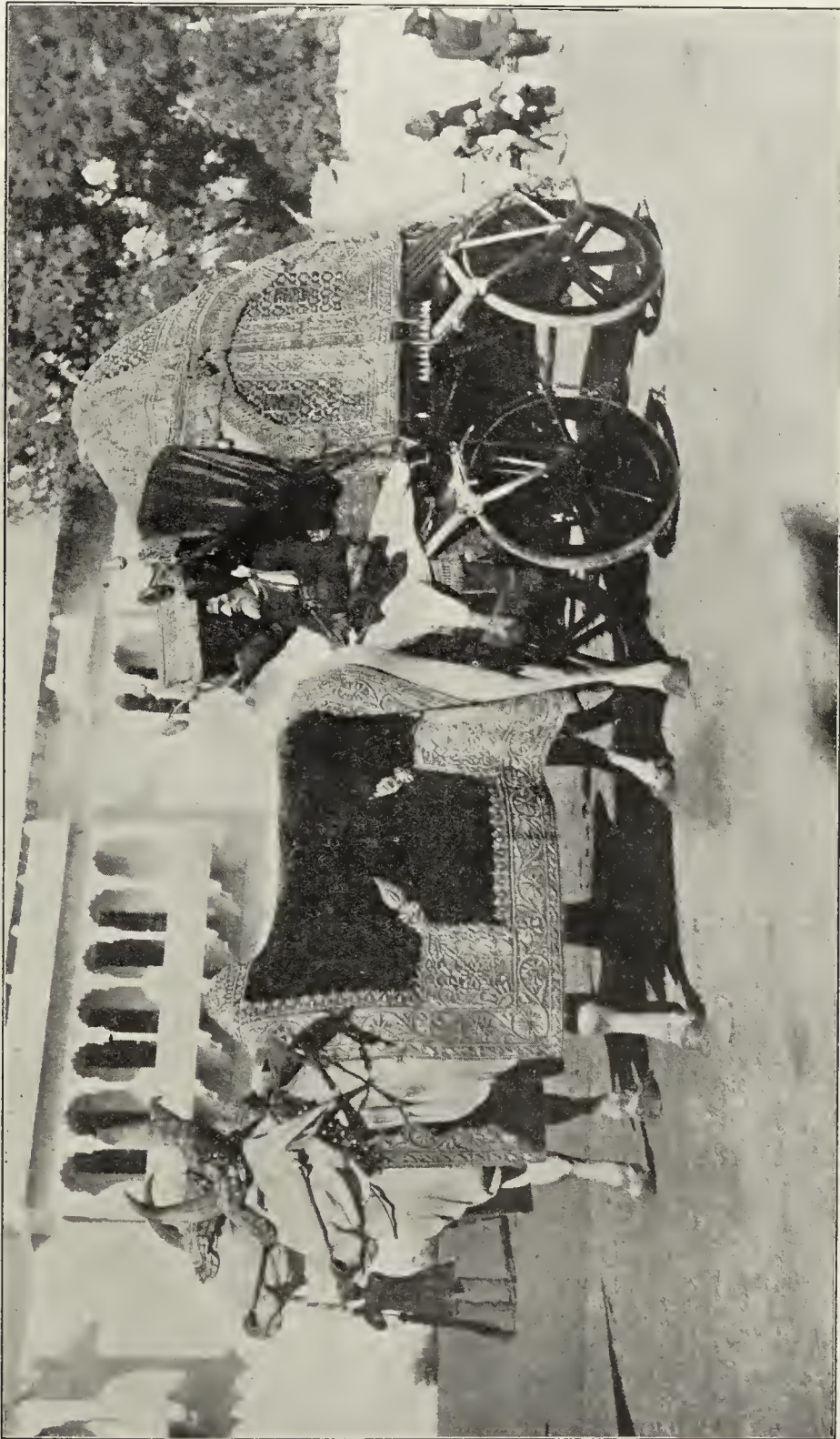
The first real step on the road to self-government was taken in January, 1921, when H.R.H. the Duke of Connaught inaugurated the new Indian Legislature, the Chamber of Princes, and the Provincial Legislative Councils. Lord Reading became Viceroy in 1921, and riots, strikes and agrarian troubles continued.

At Nankana, in the Punjab, a fight between Sikhs resulted in many casualties. The policy of non-co-operation was continued by the extremists and several of the leaders of the movement were arrested.

In Malabar, the Mohammedan fanatics, known as the Moplahs, opposed the ordinary process of the law, and an extended revolt occurred in this portion of the Madras Presidency. Both British and Hindus were killed, and order was only restored by the employment of considerable military forces.

Special Missions were sent by the Government of India to Afghanistan and Tibet. The Railway Commission presented its report and advised the termination of the system under which several Indian Government-owned railways are managed by companies with headquarters in London. The Prisons Commission, in their report, advised the abolition of the Andaman Islands Penal Settlement; a course which has been adopted by the Government. Large Irrigation Schemes were sanctioned, and in November, 1921, H.R.H. the Prince of Wales visited India and was received with great loyalty and enthusiasm, marred only by an attempt on the part of the extremists to boycott the festivities arranged in his honour.

The non-co-operative movement passed the bounds of Constitutional agitation early in 1922, and the arrest of Ghandi immediately followed. This Indian revolutionist was sentenced to six years imprisonment. The unrest which had been manifest for some years throughout India immediately began to subside. Several efforts were made to obtain wider powers for the India Legislature, especially as regards the votable and non-votable items in the Budget (see *Government*). Then the Government considered it necessary to protect Ruling Native Princes



A RATHA, OR BULLOCK CHARIOT

against press attacks and a Bill was introduced in the Legislature with this object, but the Viceroy decided to certify the Bill under the Government of India Act without recourse to the Assembly.

The report of the Tariff Commission, formed in 1919-20 to consider what benefit would result to India from the imposition of a Preferential Tariff, was presented in 1922. It recommended (1) the adoption of a policy of protection; (2) the formation of an advisory tariff board to enquire into the claims of certain industries for protection; (3) industrial education; (4) the creation of opportunities for the training of Indian apprentices; (5) legislation against the dumping of goods from foreign countries with a depreciated rate of exchange; (6) protection against bounty-aided imports; (7) a rates board to investigate complaints regarding high railway and coast transport charges; (8) the encouragement of essentially Indian industries and those necessary for national defence by a protective tariff; and (9) a *conditional* measure of Imperial Preference.

A Committee was appointed to visit the Self-Governing Dominions to discuss the disabilities of Indians in certain parts of the White Empire. The Legislative powers were enhanced by the appointment of Standing Committees for the various departments of the Government; a Bill was passed by the Indian Parliament sanctioning the expenditure of £100,000,000 on the railways during the years 1923-27; and a Central Railway Advisory Board was established.

Burma was constituted a Governor's Province early in 1923; and the Commission under Lord Lee of Fareham was appointed to report on the organisation and conditions of the Indian Civil and other public services. About this time the Retrenchment Commission, under the chairmanship of Lord Inchcape, recommended a reduction in the Budget of nearly £13,000,000. The proposed increase of the Salt Tax by the Government was defeated in the Legislative Assembly, but was certified and passed as "essential in the interests of British India," by Lord Reading under the Government of India Act.

Although the principle of Protection, recommended by the Tariff Commission in

1922 was accepted by the Government, it was decided to apply it with discrimination. In this connection it should be noted that hitherto the Indian Tariff had been adjusted with a view to producing the major portion of the Revenue.

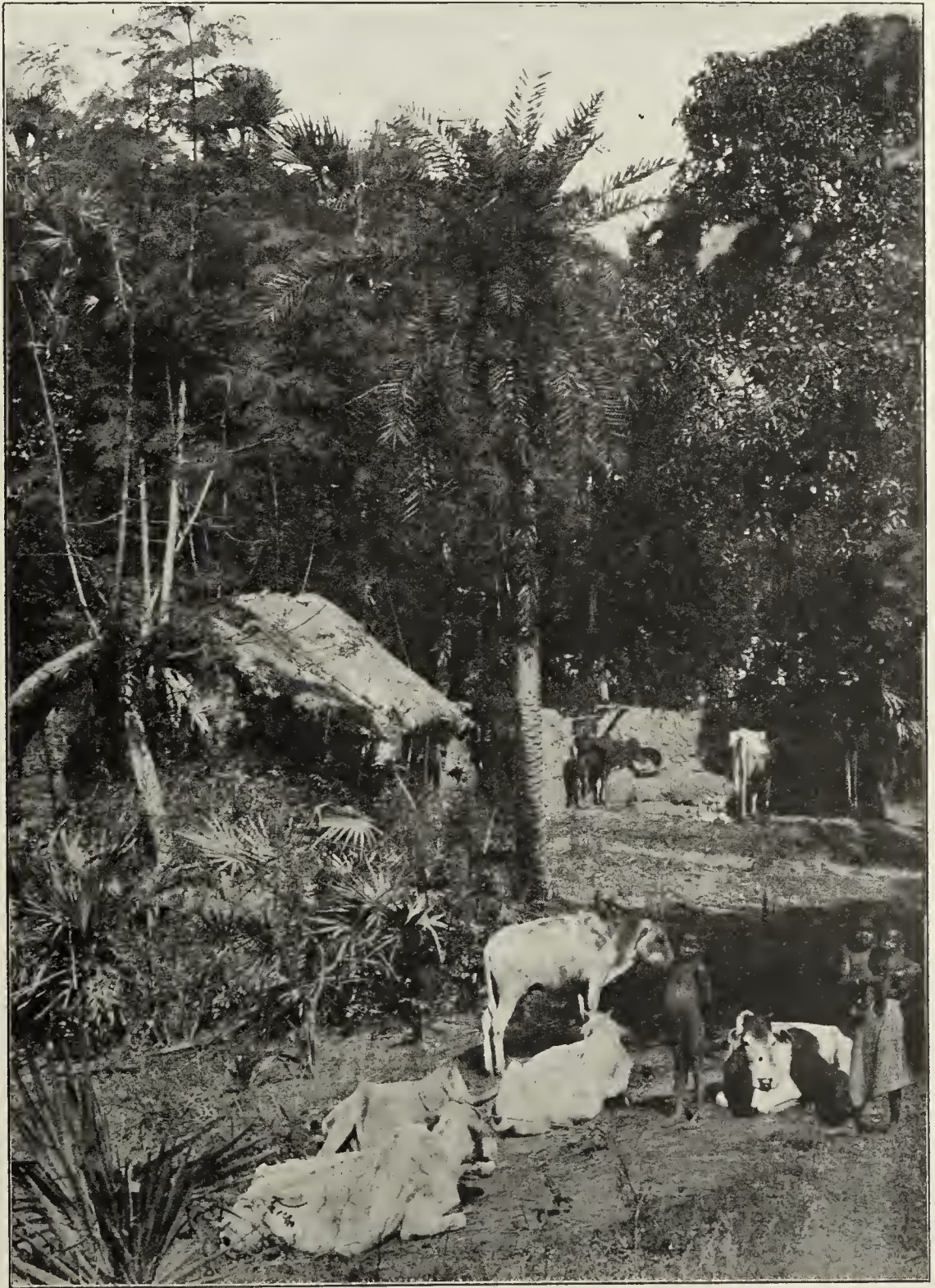
The trade convention with Afghanistan was concluded; and a Bill was passed which had for its object the removal of certain racial distinctions in regard to the law of criminal procedure applicable to Indians and non-Indians.

The trouble during past years in Waziristan had caused the Government to commence the construction of certain strategic roads for mechanical transport in Waziristan itself and along the Derajat border, and these important military highways were completed in 1923.

The status of Indians resident in Kenya Colony had become the subject of such severe criticism that a Resolution was passed at the Imperial Conference in London recommending each Dominion of the Empire, in which Indian subjects resided, to set up a commission to act in conjunction with a commission from India to ascertain how far the principle, that Indian residents in other portions of the Empire should not suffer derogation of the rights of citizenship, decided upon at a previous meeting of the Imperial Conference, had been carried out.

The elections for both the Legislative Assembly and the Provincial Councils were held in 1924, with a total electorate for the former of 991,000, and for the latter (eight in number) of 5,810,000. The result of these elections was to increase the number of seats in both the Legislative Assembly and the Provincial Councils held by the *Swarajists*, or party of "India for the Indians." When the Assembly met they blocked the necessary financial proposals of the Government, and the Viceroy was once again compelled to certify the Budget after its rejection by the Legislative Assembly. The same obstructive measures were employed by the Provincial Councils and the subjects so recently "transferred" to Indian Ministers, had to be again taken over by the Governors.

The Government of Bengal received special powers to suppress the violent crime and conspiracies, all with anarchial aims, which made itself particularly manifest in 1924-5;



RURAL LIFE IN BENGAL

Photo, A. S. Hutchinson

and the Punjab was excited by the Sikh invasion of the Nebha State.

The Lee Commission appointed in 1923 to investigate the conditions obtaining in the superior Civil Services of India recommended (1) financial improvements, and (2) a further Indianisation (I.C.S. 60 per cent., against 39; Police 50 per cent.; and Forest Service 75 per cent.). At the end of 1924 Coorg was given a Legislative Council.

The outstanding event of the early months of 1925 was the appointment of a Committee to enquire into the working of the Indian Legislature. This Committee suggested a number of alterations in the Constitution, the most important being that in purely Indian affairs the control of the Secretary of State (London) should be relaxed.

Lord Reading returned to England to confer with the Imperial Government, and, on his return to India, announced that it had been decided that the time had not arrived for a complete revision of the Constitution (as recommended in the Montagu-Chelmsford Report of 1918).

Among the public works commenced in 1925 was the railway electrification in Bombay—the first of its kind in India; and the Mettur-Cauvery irrigation scheme, which had for its object the irrigation of 310,000 acres of land in Madras.

Among the commercial events was the granting of a bounty on Indian-made steel, and a strike in the Bombay cotton mills against a reduction in wages.

The strategic railway through the Khyber Pass, from Jamrud to Landi-Kotal, on the frontier of Afghanistan, a total distance of about 28 miles, was completed.

In 1926, for the fourth year in succession, the Indian Budget was balanced, and consequently the Cotton Excise Duty was taken off. The repeal of this tax had been urged by mill owners during the strike of the previous year in the Bombay mills. It was also decided, in view of the improved financial position, to increase the expenditure on medical services, research, sanitation and education. The export of opium was finally prohibited (see *Finance*).

The request by the Nizam of Hyderabad for the restoration of the Province of Berar, leased in perpetuity to the British Government in 1902, was refused on the grounds that there was no valid reason for such a

demand; and the decision was made to convert the Royal Indian Marine into a combatant force—the beginnings of an Indian Navy (see *Imperial Defence*).

Lord Irwin became Viceroy in 1926. The first important event in the new administration was the adoption of the recommendations of the Currency Commission: (1) to fix the gold value of the rupee at 1s. 6d.; (2) to create a Central Bank, and (3) to establish a gold standard.

Continuing the policy of settling the remote frontiers of India, and owing very largely to the success which had attended the despatch of the Government Mission into the Hukawng Valley for the suppression of the slave trade, an expedition was sent to the Kachin tribes on the Burma-Chinese frontier with the object of inducing these chiefs to abandon the systems of domestic slavery in vogue in what is known as "The Triangle"—the country surrounding the Upper Irrawaddy and between two other rivers. In the State of Nepal a slave liberation scheme, instituted by the native Prime Minister, had been successfully carried out at a cost of under £300,000.

The grievances of the Indian peasantry next claimed the attention of the Government, and a Commission was appointed to investigate and to endeavour to suggest remedies for these. India was represented at the Imperial Conference in London by the Secretary of State, the Maharajah of Burdwan and Mr. D. L. Chadwick.

In many parts of India, and especially in Calcutta and Delhi, there occurred during 1926 considerable strife, religious and otherwise, between Mohammedans and Hindus. Rioting and consequent loss of life took place and in Bombay a "state of emergency" was proclaimed. The elections for the Legislative Assembly and Provincial Councils resulted in a majority in the former being secured by the Swarajists, which party also secured the largest number of seats in the Councils of Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, and Madras.

The Tariff Board, in 1927, secured the adoption of its recommendations: (1) for the better protection of the Indian steel industry, and (2) for the protection of the cotton textile industry against the dumping of cotton yarn by competitors who could produce at a lower cost than Indian manu-



THE MAIN STREET IN THE [NATIVE QUARTER OF AMRITSAR, PUNJAB, NORTHERN INDIA

facturers. An alteration was made in the duty payable on imported cotton yarn and the tax on imported mill stores was abolished.

Among other important events in the realm of internal politics was the passing of an Act requiring the registration of all trade unions; the recommendation by the Committee appointed to enquire into the Bombay (City) Back Bay Reclamation Scheme, that a substantial portion of the work, originally contemplated, should be carried on, but that it should, wherever possible, be undertaken by contractors.

The Sandhurst, or Skeen Commission, advised the progressive Indianisation of the Army, so that by 1952 half the officers of this force should be Indians. The status of Indian residents in the Union of South Africa (*q.v.*), was settled by the Governments concerned, and an Agent General for India was despatched to South Africa. The Council House at the new capital of Delhi was opened; and the rulers of the Native States of India met to consider their future position.

Education was made compulsory in the Native State of Patiala; and slavery was abolished in Kalat, Baluchistan. The Imperial Government in London passed the Indian Army and Indian Church Bills. By the former the old R.I. Marine becomes the Royal Indian Navy, and by the latter the Church in India becomes autonomous.

Early in 1928 it was decided by the Home Government to appoint a Royal Commission, under Sir John Simon, to proceed to India and to investigate and report as to the desirability of establishing in a form modified or otherwise Responsible Government in India. Events subsequent to this are of too recent occurrence to have crossed the bar of controversial politics and entered the quieter waters of historical fact.

Imperial Indian Legislation

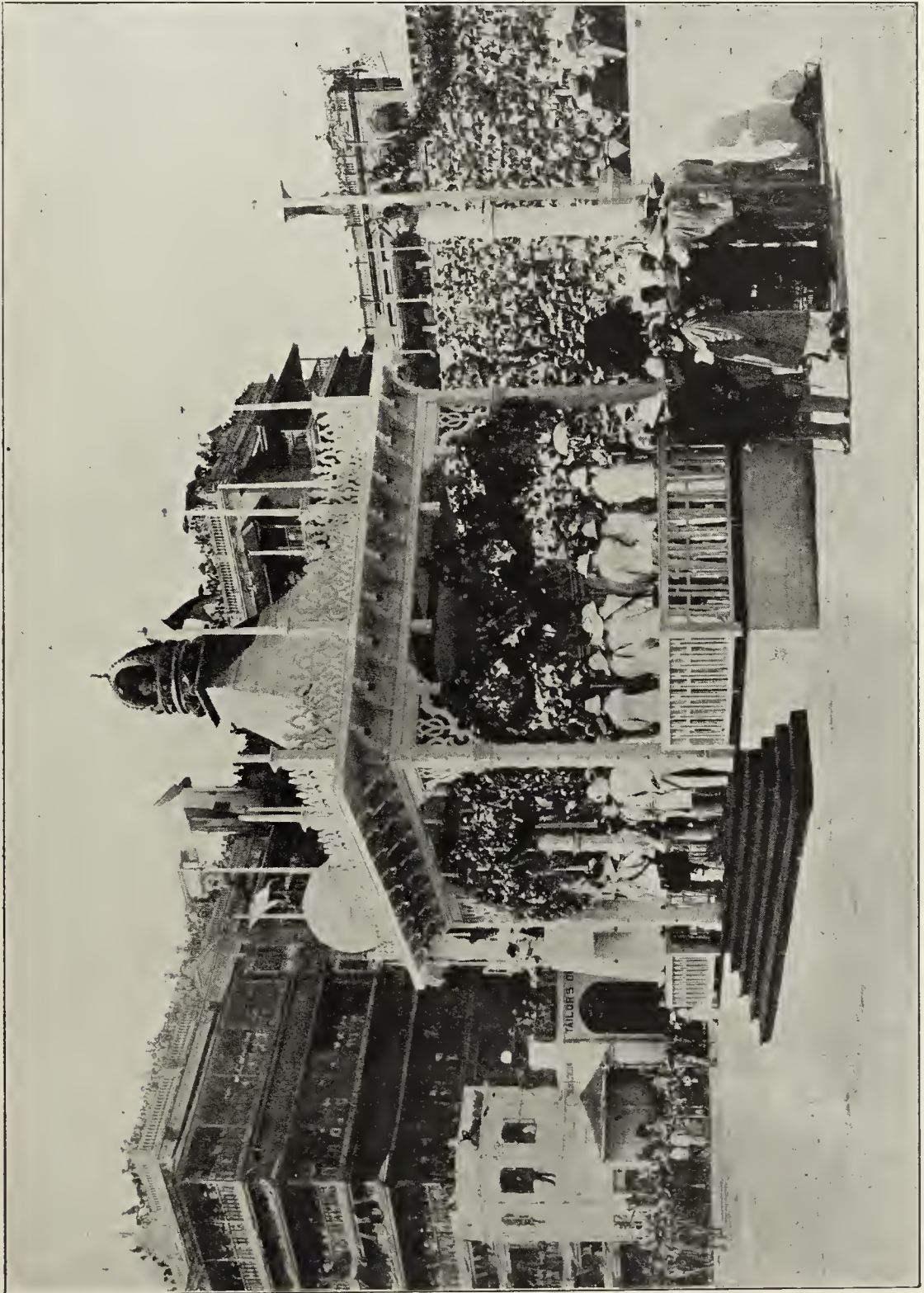
The following table gives the *principal* Legislative Acts passed by a Home Government for India, since the granting of the Charter to the Honourable East India Company.

<i>Date.</i>	<i>Act and Purpose.</i>
1773	Regulating Act. Creating First Governor, Council of five, Judiciary, and generally recognising the East India Company as Rulers of India.

1784	India Act. Granting the Business and Patronage to the East India Company, but reserving supreme civil and military authority to a Board of Control, with a President representing India in the House of Commons.
1793	East India Company Act. Renewal of the Charter of the East India Company.
1813	East India Company Act. Again renewing the Charter, but throwing open the trade of India.
1833	Again renewing the Charter, but abolishing the Company's monopoly of the trade with China, altering the purpose of the East India Company from an administrative, as well as a commercial company, to a purely administrative body.
1853	Renewal of Charter, but Indian Civil Service thrown open to competitive entry.
1858	Better Government of India Act. Transference to the Crown of all territories and rights hitherto possessed by the East India Company.
1877	Royal Titles Act. Queen Victoria assumes the title of Empress of India.
1907	Indian Councils Act. Enlargement of the Imperial and Provincial Legislative Councils, and increase of the elective element.
1911	Indian High Courts Act. Increasing the number of High Courts.
1912	Government of India Act. Creation of a new Province of Bihar and Orissa. A Governorship for Bengal and the creation of Legislative Councils for Provinces under Chief Commissioners.
1915	An Act to consolidate Imperial Legislation relating to India.
1919	Government of India Act. Granting a measure of Legislative Self-government and creating a Parliament.

The Indian Empire

India comprises politically not only the Asiatic peninsula which has its base on the Himalaya and Hindu Kush Ranges, and its apex at Cape Comorin, 2,000 miles further south in the Indian Ocean, but also Kashmir, British Baluchistan, Assam, the Indo-Chinese Shan States, and the great province of Burma. In addition to this enormous territory, which is equal in size to the whole of Europe, exclusive of Russia, and is inhabited by one-fifth of the entire population of the world, the Indian Empire itself possesses overseas dominions. These are the Andaman, Nicobar and Laccadive Islands, in the Bay of Bengal and the Arabian Sea; Aden, and the small island of Perim, at the entrance to the Red Sea; and protectorates have been proclaimed over the islands of Socotra, situated about 130 miles from Cape Guardafui, the eastern Horn of Africa, and Bahrein, off



RECEPTION OF H.R.H. THE PRINCE OF WALES AT BOMBAY

the cost of Persia. The Aden Hinterland, which extends from Sheikh Sayad, on the mainland opposite Perim, to the River Bana is also under Indian jurisdiction.

Within the sphere of the *direct influence* of the Indian Government are the independent native states of Baluchistan, Nepal, and Bhutan, all of which occupy portions of the North-east and North-west frontiers; and the *British sphere of interest* may be said to extend to Afghanistan, Tibet, and portions of Persia, which adjoin the territory of states in alliance with the British Indian Empire.

FOREIGN TERRITORIAL RIGHTS.

Besides Great Britain the only other Powers who have any territorial rights in India are France and Portugal. The Portuguese possessions consist of Goa, a small colony with an area of some 1,400 square miles, situated on the south-west coast of the peninsula, Daman, a tiny coast settlement about 100 miles north of Bombay, and the Island of Diu, in the Gulf of Cambay. France still retains about 200 square miles of territory, which is, however, divided among several small coast settlements, the chief of which is Pondicherry. The Indian settlements of both France and Portugal are only trading posts; they are prohibited by treaty from maintaining large military forces therein.

British India

The ten large Provinces into which British India is sub-divided are as follows :—

Province.	Area, Square miles.	Pop., Census, 1921.	Pop., estimated, 1930.
North-West Frontier Province - -	25,600	2,251,340	2,292,620
Punjab - - - -	99,800	20,685,024	21,725,024
United Provinces - - - -	106,300	45,375,787	44,025,787
Bihar and Orissa - - - -	83,181	34,002,189	33,662,189
Bengal - - - -	76,840	46,695,536	47,615,536
Assam - - - -	53,015	7,606,230	8,516,230
Burma - - - -	233,700	13,212,192	14,382,192
Madras - - - -	142,300	42,218,985	43,150,985
Bombay - - - -	123,600	19,348,219	19,158,219
Central Provinces and Berar - -	99,880	13,912,760	13,909,821

In addition to these there are the British districts in Baluchistan, of which Quetta is the principal; the State of Ajmer-Merwara, in Rajputana; the Province of Coorg, on the

borders of Mysore, and the Province of Delhi, the Capital of the Indian Empire. The area and population of these are as follows :—

District.	Area, Sq. miles.	Pop. Census, 1921	Pop. estimated, 1930
British Balu- chistan -	54,228	420,648	424,829
Ajmer-Merwara -	2,711	495,271	490,260
Coorg -	1,582	163,838	155,507
Delhi -	557	488,188	578,550

A large portion of the Indian Empire is composed of native states. These are, in correct phraseology, “in subordinate alliance with His Imperial Majesty Kaiser-i-Hind” (Emperor of India). They may be considered rather centres of strength than of weakness, for, although they are ruled by their own princes assisted by a political agent of the Indian (Imperial) or British Provincial Governments, they are controlled in their foreign or interstate relations; and at the expense of their own revenues maintain bodies of “Imperial Service Troops.”

The Deccan Plateau

The great length of India causes its southernmost point, Cape Comorin, to be situated only 8° north of the equator in the hottest region of the earth, while its northern frontiers are well within the temperate zone. This vast extent of country, which is, in

parts, as broad as it is long, has a corresponding variety of climate, which, with the chief topographical features, may be divided into three regions.

The triangular table-land forming the extreme south, once known as the "Deccan," is separated from the Gangetic plains (second region) by the confused ranges of mountains known as the Vindhya, and is bordered on the coasts by the Eastern and Western Ghats, which, at their junction with the Nilgiris in the extreme south, attain an altitude of 7,000 to 8,000 ft. Thus the Deccan plateau, which has an elevation of from 1,000 to 3,000 ft., is completely surrounded by mountains. It includes Bombay, Madras, the

the passes leading to the Deccan. The line winds round mountains, through gorges and tunnels and along the edge of precipices; a sample of the wonderful feats of engineering skill which are apparent in so many places on the 40,000 miles of railways in India.

The Western Ghats often rise precipitously from the sea, leaving little level coast-land; but the Eastern Ghats slope more gradually downwards to the Bay of Bengal. The rivers, the chief of which are the Mahanadi,



THE ELEPHANT BATTERIES SALUTE

H.R.H. The Prince of Wales and the Maharajah of Gwalior at a march past of the Imperial Service Troops of the State of Gwalior

Dominions of the Nizam of Hyderabad, the Central Provinces and Berar, and the State of Mysore.

The passes which lead from the sea coast to the interior are lofty and difficult, and were, in by-gone days, considered to be impregnable natural fortifications against invasions from the sea, but time alters all things and railways now cross these rugged mountains. The line from Bombay through the Bhar Ghat Gorge, which reaches an elevation of over 2,000 ft. and is situated some 40 miles south of the Port of Bombay, affords an excellent idea of the general nature of

Godavari, Krishna, and Kavari, nearly all flow eastward, watering the valleys and plains of Madras, but nature has supplied an equivalent on the west coast, where the saturated clouds of the south-west monsoon, which blows from June to September, let loose their floods when rent by the rugged peaks of the Western Ghats, giving to the Bombay coast an average rainfall of over 150 in. annually, whereas the central plateau has an average of only about 20 in., and the Madras coast about 30 in. in the year—owing to the north-east monsoon which blows from September to January.

The principal characteristic of this vast region is its magnificent forests of giant trees, interlaced with creepers, and interspersed with broad plains covered with grass and scrub. The view from an eminence over the jungles of the northern Circars of Madras, or the great Coorg forest in the west, gives a clear impression of the fertility and humid atmosphere of this portion of India. A sea of green foliage, with the vivid colours subdued by the heat-haze, stretches away until lost in the quivering blue of distance. A mysterious stillness prevails, unbroken by the sighing breeze which often disturbs the hill crests in Equatorial Africa, and spreading a flood of brilliant light and almost visible heat over the jungle is the fiery Indian sun—a great contrast to the cool breezes which blow from the snow-fields over the deodars on the slopes of the Himalayas. The jungles are inhabited by a magnificent selection of big game; tigers, elephants, leopards, and bison, are there in number, in addition to lesser beasts and birds, making Southern India a sporting paradise unsurpassed even by the game-covered plains of the Southern Sudan.

It must not be supposed that no portion of this fertile country is cultivated; on the contrary, cotton, sugar-cane and tobacco are grown in large quantities, as is also wheat and millet on the plateau. The forests contain spices, drugs, dyes, and valuable woods; and the mountains yield coal in large quantities in the south-west corner of Bengal, and gold in Madras and Mysore, in addition to copper, marble, and diamonds in small quantities.

On the coast of Madras, facing the Bay of Bengal, is situated the tiny French settlement of Pondicherry, and on the opposite coast, in Bombay, is the small Portuguese settlement of Goa.

The Plains of Northern India

The second region is formed by the plains of Northern India, watered by the four great river systems which have their sources amid the snows of the Himalayas (third region). These are the Indus and Sutlej, which completely cross the Punjab; the Brahmaputra, which rises on the northern slopes of the Himalayas and flows along the Tibetan side for many miles until it strikes south and enters Assam and Bengal; and

the Ganges, in the holy waters of which devout Hindus wash away their sins, with its tributary the Jumna, which has its source in a glacier on the southern slopes of the Himalayas, and flows through Oudh and Bengal, where it splits into several mouths, one of which, the Hugli, forms the great highway for ocean shipping going to and from Calcutta.

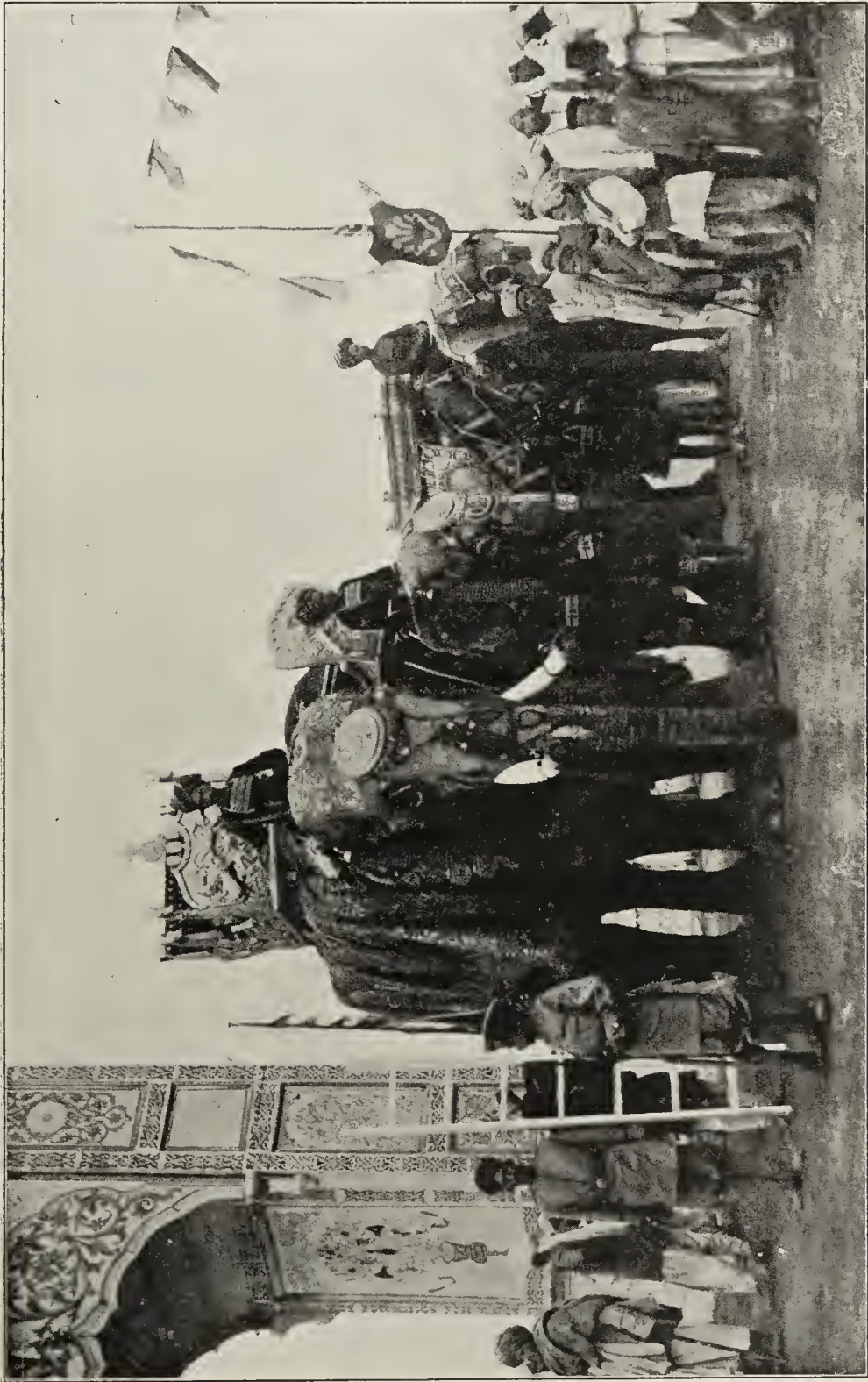
This well-watered and fertile region includes the provinces of Assam, Bengal, the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, the Punjab, Rajputana, and some adjoining natives States. This is the most fertile portion of India, as well as the most densely populated; no fewer than 210,000,000 people live principally from the soil of the river-plains.

In Lower Bengal, and along the river banks and irrigation canals, rice forms the staple food, but in southern and northern India wheat and millet take its place. The scenery of this region varies greatly. In parts the country is flat or undulating, as in Bengal, and dotted with villages, groves of mangoes, shady banyans, tamarinds, and the red-blossomed wild cotton tree, with fields covered with luxuriant crops of rice, sugar-cane, flax, cotton, tobacco, and indigo, which is principally grown in Assam. The Gangetic Delta, which has an area of many thousand square miles, is composed of level rice fields, with clumps of coco-nuts, palms, and bamboos, which are made with marvellous ingenuity to yield food, fuel, and merchandise. The jungles of the interior are gay with foliage and flowers, and produce the famous lac, as well as the *tasar* silk cocoons and a host of medicinal plants, also snakes and centipedes. The water-pools are covered with lotus and water-lilies; and in the Punjab the crops include wheat, Indian corn, barley and millet.

The Himalayas

The third region comprises the Himalaya Mountains, which, with the table-lands beyond, form the magnificent natural frontier of the great Indian Empire. They consist of two mountain walls, the most lofty in the world, extending east and west for a distance of over 1,700 miles.

From a military point of view no better frontier formation than the Himalayas, other



THE STATE ELEPHANTS OF JAMMU
These gorgeously caparisoned animals form part of the entourage of the Maharajah of Kashmir

than the "broad ocean," could possibly have been placed by Nature at the northern extremity of India. These successive ranges of mountains, capped with eternal snows and glaciers, vary in breadth from 150 to 250 miles, and are joined on the north by lofty, desolate table-lands, which themselves culminate in distant ranges. A system of natural barriers which could only be crossed by a hostile army when the passes had been forced, during the few months they are free from snow—and the lines of communication, across the table-lands and mountains in the rear, on which the whole invading army would be compelled to rely for food and other necessary supplies, had been secured from interruption—an extremely difficult task in the face of the thousands of native marksmen who would infest the almost inaccessible country on every hand.

The southern range of the Himalayas rises abruptly from the plains of India to regions of perpetual snow, with an altitude of about 20,000 feet, culminating in two of the most lofty peaks in the world, Mount Everest (29,000 feet) and Kinchinjunga (28,176 feet). The northern range, divided from the Tibetan table-land by a third chain, is more confused, but rises high above the snow line.

India's frontiers at the north-eastern and north-western extremity of the Himalayas are protected by supplementary ranges which divide the country on the one hand from Upper Burma and China, and on the other from Afghanistan and Baluchistan. The best known passes leading to Afghanistan are the Khyber, the Kuram, the Gwalari, the Tal, and the Bolan; there are several others at a greater altitude, which, however, are used only during certain months in the year for the transport of merchandise.

The rainfall on the Indian slopes of the Himalayas is very heavy. The monsoon dashes the water-laden clouds against these impassable ranges, and the rainfall averages 300 in. annually. On the hill-sides in Assam it amounts in the year to over 400 in., whereas on the plains of India it rarely exceeds 35 to 40 in. From this it must not be supposed that the climate of "the hills" is generally damp and unpleasant; in fact it is here that Simla and Darjeeling, the health resorts of all India, are situated.

Although the general aspect of the Himalayas is one of dark-grey rugged mountain

slopes leading up to glistening cones of white snow and ice, which disappear amid a halo of clouds, or fade away in the blue heavens, a closer acquaintance reveals beauties invisible from a distance. At the foot of the great southern range lies the belt of damp, malarious jungle known as the *Terai*, a pestilential forest and marsh inhabited principally by wild beasts. The temperature falls over 3 deg. F. for every 1,000 ft. ascended. Tropical fertility disappears, and its place is taken, first, by jungles of the pale green foliage of the slim bamboo; then enormous clumps of pink and scarlet rhododendrons, which in the Himalayas attain the size of a giant of the forest, mixed with the *deodar*, and the surrounding slopes patched with the red bloom of millet. Then comes the green of innumerable other growths in which are nestled the bungalow-houses of "the Hills." On the more lofty slopes, oak, cedar, silver-fir, and pine trees, supplant the other growths, and the ground becomes more broken and rock-strewn, eventually the firs and pines rise up from their lonely beds of snow, and the "eager and the nipping air" denotes the arctic of the Himalayas.

Calcutta

The gateway of India is the Hugli River, or western mouth of the Ganges, upon both banks of which stands the great city and port of Calcutta. This broad stream, with its low-lying banks and surrounding rice-fields, presents a busy scene of maritime activity throughout its entire length from the Bay of Bengal to the commercial capital of India. The combined streams of the Ganges and Brahmaputra, which join near the delta, have another even larger outflow, the Meghna, which is in places nearly 20 miles broad; but the Hugli, leading to Calcutta, and then, by way of the main stream of the Ganges and Junma, to the great interior cities of Patna, Benares, Allahabad, Agra, and Delhi—the capital of the Indian Empire—bears to and from the sea the bulk of the enormous river-borne commerce of Bengal and North Eastern India.

The importance of Calcutta as a sea and river port may be judged from its enormous import and export trade (seaward and landward) which, in 1881 amounted in value to



THE FAMOUS MARBLE ROCKS OF JUBBULPORE

approximately 1,400,000,000 rupees, and annually during the last five years to an average of 96 millions sterling. The tonnage of commercial shipping annually entering and clearing from this port averages over 2,800,000 in both cases. As a city its size can best be imagined by its population, which exceeds 1,330,000. The chief exports are grain, cotton, oil, seeds, tea, indigo, jute, silk, coffee, hides and skins, saltpetre,

nondescript of eastern cities. So large is this common that the cries of jackals may occasionally be heard during the silent hours of the night.

In the early morning, during what is known in India as the "Hot Season," a drive down Chowringhee, a broad thoroughfare facing the Maidan, and lined on the opposite side with hotels, museums, shops, and municipal offices, is decidedly enjoyable and



KINCHINJUNGA (28,176 feet)

tropical produce, and minerals of many kinds. The imports are very varied but consist principally of Manchester piece goods, machinery, wines and spirits, and manufactured goods of almost every kind.

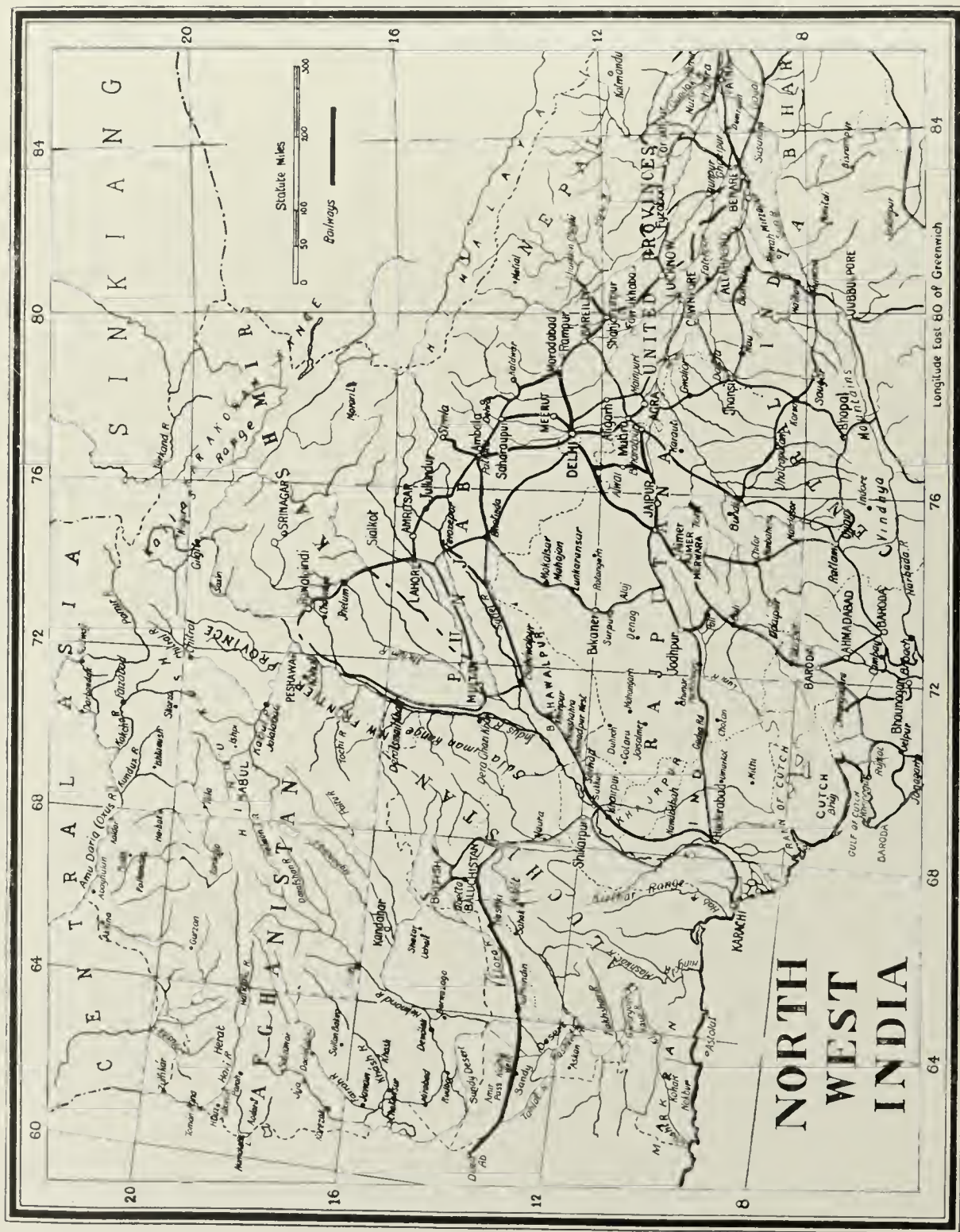
Calcutta has grown up around the Maidan, a large oasis of grass amid the sea of stone, brick, and stucco, affording a welcome relief to the eyes after the dusty roads and glaring white buildings of the city. The Maidan is bordered by trees, in the cool shade of which stand, or squat, beggars, fakirs, and the other

interesting, as it affords an unrivalled opportunity of studying the peculiarities of Indian and especially Anglo-Indian life; the only discordant note being the frequent clang of the electric tramcars. This is the "Piccadilly" of the European quarters. Motors are manœuvring amid the procession of "garies," or ramshackle cabs with native drivers and hangers-on; cars with turbaned attendants are conveying their owners to their offices, and bamboo country carts drawn by bullocks, whose only grievance



THE STREET OF STEPS IN THE NATIVE QUARTER, SIMLA

Photo, Underwood



SPECIALLY DRAWN FOR THE ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

BY A. H. LEE

seems to be the continual twisting of their tails by impatient, though indolent drivers, block the way to faster traffic. Natives lightly clad, or more often scarcely clad at all, are sprinkling the dusty roadway with water from skins, and members of that great administrative body, the Indian Civil Service, and parties of officers of the Staff and Line, with Mem-Sahibs, whose fair English complexions contrast to strange advantage with the dusky solemn-visaged

offices and the more pretentious town dwellings face the Maidan.

It would be impossible to enumerate all the "sights" of Calcutta, but visits will be made by the new-comer to Garden Reach, the fashionable residential suburb; Government House, and the fine adjacent squares; the Cathedral; the Botanical Gardens, exhibiting a marvellous collection of the flora of the plains; the spot where the "Black Hole" once stood—wherein was



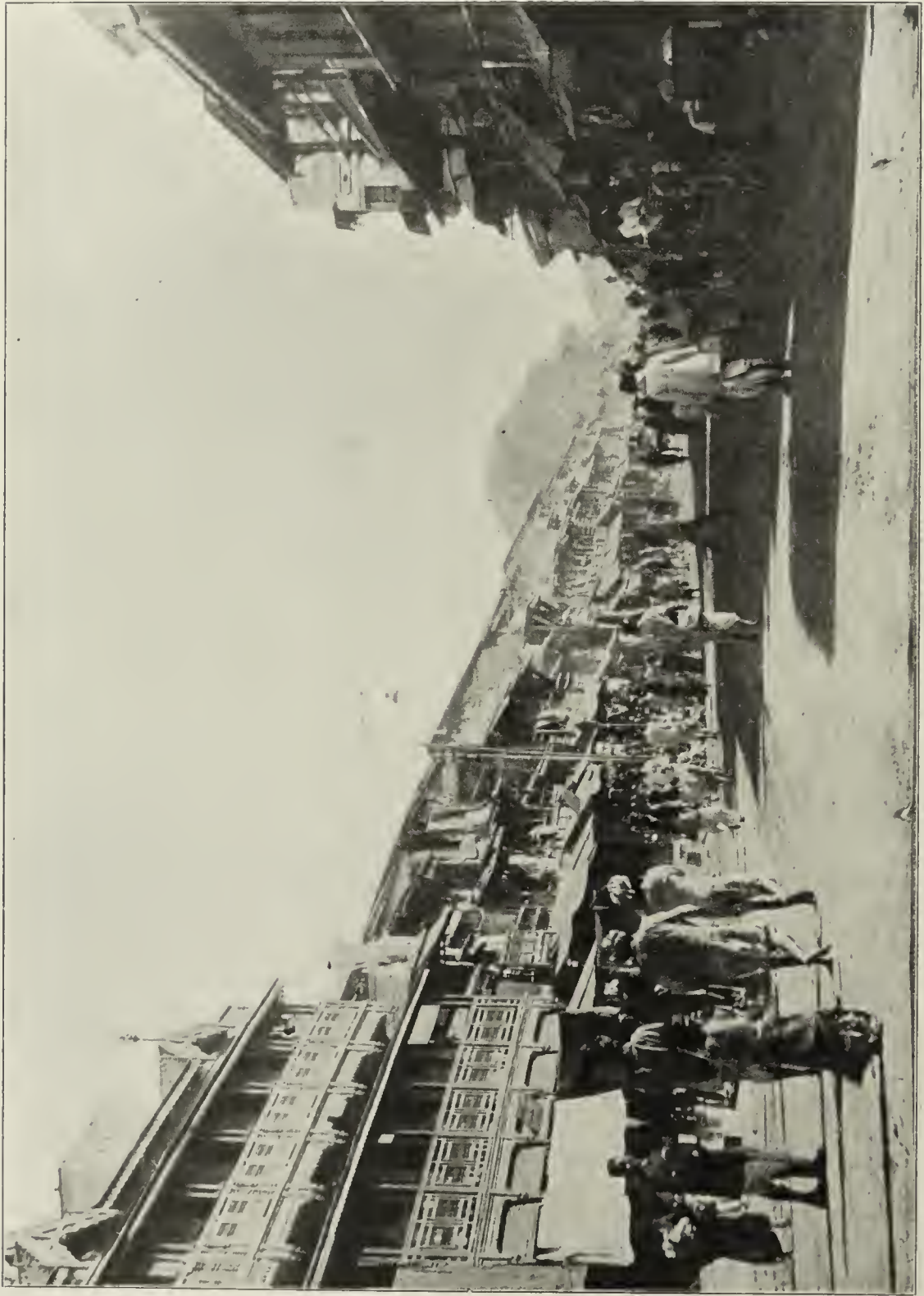
CLIVE STREET, CALCUTTA

passers-by, can be seen driving in the morning cool.

Walking is not fashionable in India, and the pedestrians in the Chowringhee, or other thoroughfare, are composed of a few Europeans and Eurasians, or half-castes, among a large number of coolies and native women.

The European quarters of Calcutta are composed of broad streets lined with hotels, clubs, offices, and well-stocked shops. In the residential districts the houses occupy considerable space, are surrounded by broad verandahs, and usually have garages and gardens attached. Many of the Government

enacted the tragedy of the night of 20th June, 1756; the modern representation of Old Fort William, much altered since the stormy days which closed the eighteenth century; and Lyon's Range, where many of the large mercantile offices are situated. There are many other interesting places, and a good number of fine buildings—mosques, temples and palaces. When, by devious paths, the whole of European Calcutta has been seen, there still remain to be explored the teeming streets, alleys, and bazaars of the great native city. Calcutta does not, however, afford the best illustration of Indian



A STREET SCENE, CALCUTTA



GENERAL POST OFFICE, CALCUTTA

life, although a drive in the neighbourhood of Chadney Chowk reveals many peculiar sights familiar to every city in India, and the Jain Temple is one of the most artistic buildings of its kind in India. It is in the native states that one sees now, almost unchanged by the centuries, the true and lasting characteristics of Indian life. In Rajputana, Mysore and the Deccan, in Kashmir, Nepal, and Bhutan, may be best studied the native life of the people of the plains, the jungles and the hills.

Bengal

The original Bengal Presidency included by far the largest portion of Northern India, but, during recent years, its area has several times been reconstructed for the purpose of dividing the administrative area, owing to the density of the population. It now comprises 76,840 square miles of territory, lying principally in the valley of the Ganges, with a population of about 47,615,536.

Topographically this province consists of a homogeneous expanse of flat, rice-growing country, well-watered and densely populated, and may be considered the most fertile and closely cultivated portion of British India. The Bengali language is spoken in all parts, but Mohammedans predominate in the eastern, and Hindus in the western districts.

The Provincial Capital is Calcutta, but, as with all Government headquarters on the plains of India, there is a hill station at Darjeeling, to which the Administration repairs during the hottest months of the year. In this province, however, there is also a third station, at Dacca, a large city of 125,000 inhabitants, in Eastern Bengal, where the Government spend several weeks annually.

In addition to rice, Bengal produces large quantities of indigo, sugar, oilseeds, jute, tobacco, silk and tea. In the hills of the interior there are extensive coal deposits which are being worked on a large scale and yield almost the entire coal output of India,

but these now belong to the new Province of Bihar and Orissa.

Some idea of the general aspect of the plains of Bengal and of life in this portion of India can perhaps best be given by describing the journey from Calcutta, across this large province, up to the lofty little Himalayan station of Darjeeling, which lies on the borders of the native state of Sikkim.

On nearly all Indian trains one has the choice of four different classes: 1st, 2nd, "Intermediate," and 3rd, but of these only the first two are used by Europeans, although "*Intermediate*" carriages are occasionally the resort of the needy. Most English people travel first class. Natives may, of course, be seen in coaches of every class, but all save the wealthy travel either "Intermediate" or third.

FROM THE PLAINS TO THE HILLS.

The first stage of the journey from Calcutta to Darjeeling, which occupies in all about twenty hours, lies across the fertile plains of Lower Bengal. Here one sees the ryot, or small-holder, watering his field from a branch canal of the great irrigation system by the same creaking, pole-and-bucket method as that employed by the Egyptian fellah. These boundless, fertile and thickly populated plains are covered with clumps of pale green bamboos, broad-leaved banana trees, and graceful coco-nut palms, waving listlessly in the tepid breeze. Ever and anon villages, thatched huts, and low white-domed temples glittering in the Eastern sunlight, appear from amid the green foliage, and above all is the pale, cerulean blue of the Indian sky. Short is the twilight in this land of the lotus, and long before the banks of the Ganges are reached the darkness is complete. Fire-flies hover over the rice-fields and glow amid the jungle, but a yellowing of the eastern sky is the precursor of the rising moon, soon, with its warm, soft light, to clothe in mystic beauty scenes which dazzle and burn in the glare of the sun.

On reaching the Ganges the train crosses this sacred river, wherein millions of devout Hindus of both sexes bathe at sunset each day. During the remaining hours of darkness the plains of Northern Bengal are traversed, and the foot of the Himalayas is

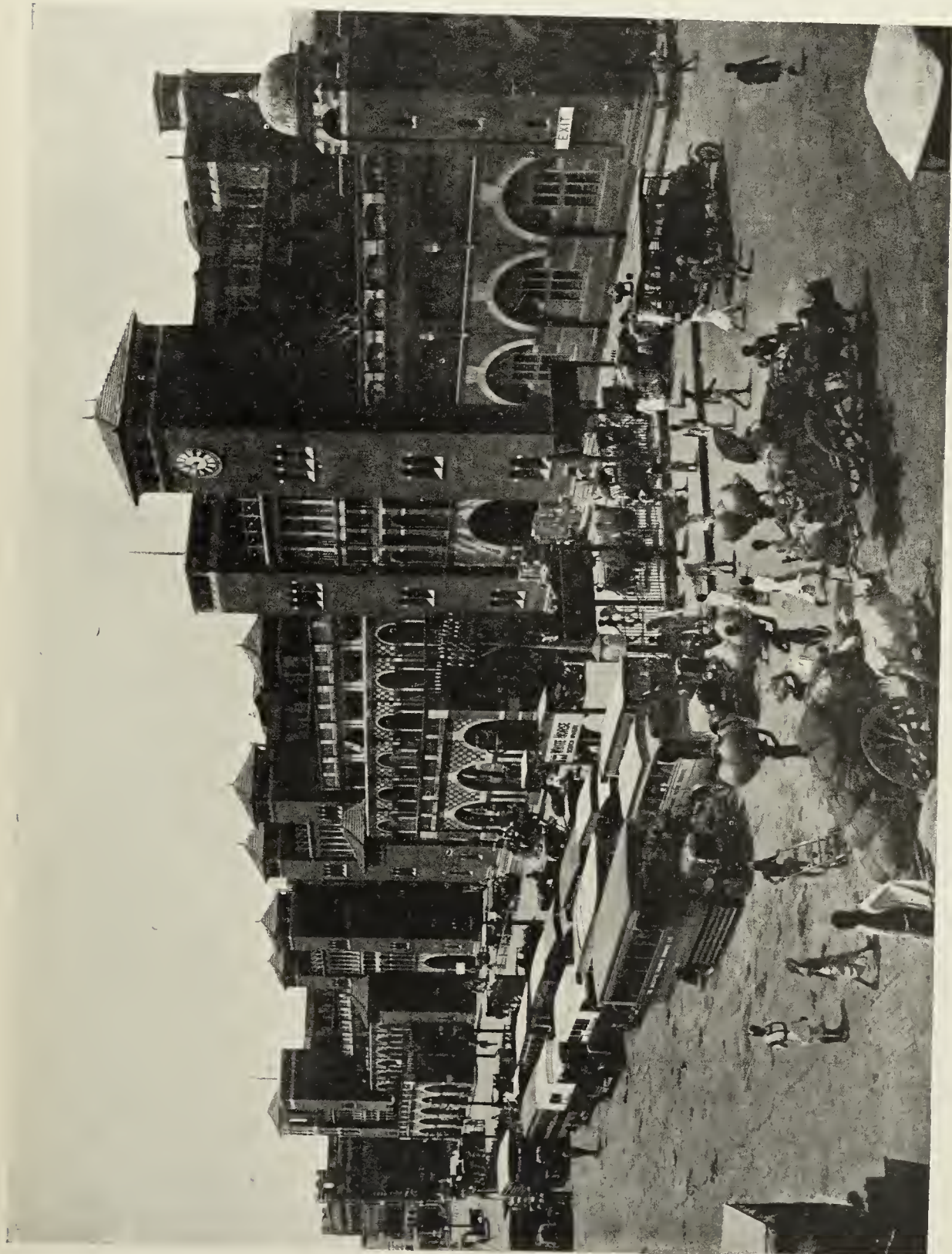
reached on the following morning at Siliguri. Here is the junction for the mountain railway which carries the traveller up to Kurseong and Darjeeling.

Many of the carriages, or really open cars, on this panoramic line are constructed *a la touriste*, which enables magnificent views to be obtained as the line gradually ascends by circuitous routes to the cool breezy summits of the Himalayan foothills. This is the land of the deodar and the fern. Everywhere are valleys and slopes covered with waving grasses and tea plantations; neat bungalows dot the hill-sides; but frowning in the distant background are the regions of the snowy Hispar—dark mountain masses rising skywards to the peaks of snow.*

Kurseong, which stands about 4,800 ft. above sea-level, is the second largest town, or really collection of bungalows, in this portion of the hills. Although it is pleasantly situated on well-wooded slopes, surrounded on every hand by tea-plantations, which comprise over half the tea-growing area of India, yielding 450 lb. to the acre, and is blest with a fresh, bracing climate, the scattered European residences, which compose the town are mostly single-storey bungalows encircled by broad shady verandahs. There is a good hotel, a small church, a Roman Catholic monastery—once famous for the excellence of a special liqueur—and several shops.

Many residents and visitors in the hills literally live on horseback, and the favourite ride from Kurseong is up the steep path to "The Schools," which are situated over 1,000 ft. above the town. In this healthy position there is a boarding school for girls and another for boys, both of which have many pupils. The enervating heat of the plains of India is most injurious to the health of white children, and many parents send their families to England to be educated; but the climate of the hills is much more healthy, and it is but natural that the planters on the surrounding estates should prefer to have their somewhat quiet though healthy lives brightened by the presence of their children, and consequently, with other European residents in the hills, and also on the plains, patronise the schools of Kurseong, Darjeeling, and other healthy mountain resorts.

* The sunrise and sunset effects on the Himalayan snows are beautiful beyond description.



HOWRAH STATION, CALCUTTA
The Joint Terminal of the Bengal-Nagpur and East Indian Railway Systems

After leaving Kurseong the line continues to ascend until an altitude of about 8,000 ft. is reached at the small station of Goom. Here the air is cool and invigorating, but, after the moist heat of the plains of Bengal, this mountain freshness, although bracing, is at first decidedly trying. From this point there is a slight descent into Darjeeling, which stands at an elevation of about 7,000 ft., and is built in tiers on the mountain sides.*

Already the crisp mountain air has imparted a feeling of energy, and interest follows quickly in its wake when the streets of Darjeeling are entered. Comfort is mostly the first consideration of the traveller, and a line of rickshaws, with native runners in cool loose dress eagerly looking for a fare, immediately attracts attention. It is advisable to engage one of these as the steep zigzag roads make walking extremely tiring. From this moving easy chair many curious scenes may be witnessed with a by no means unpleasant mixture of interest and indolence. Here are Tibetans, with their quaint head-gear and untidy dress, leading pack mules; Gurkhas in neat soldierly uniform; Bhutanese looking the embodiment of Eastern brigands with their bright sashes and murderous Khookeries dangling from bead and silver buckled girdles; Chinamen waiting patiently in their shops; Lamas from the surrounding temples; Nepalese; Merwaris from the plains; Anglo-Indian visitors, planters, Government forest and revenue officers, riding or driving; Buddhists turning their praying wheels and chanting with religious fervour. All add their quota to enliven and make attractive the narrow and steep bungalow-flanked streets of Darjeeling.

The Mall is crowded during the season with visitors from the plains, and doing a brisk trade are curio dealers and native jewellers, from Tibet, Nepal, and Sikkim; to which small, Himalayan, native frontier state Darjeeling belonged before its transfer to the Indian Government in 1835.

One of the most interesting and rare scenes witnessed in Darjeeling, occurred when the Dalai Lama, the high priest of Tibet, entered the town after his flight from Lhasa, being then on his way to China to lay before the

authorities his grievance against the Chinese Amban, whose soldiers had defeated the Tibetan Lamas and entered Lhasa.

The Chinese troops, it must be stated, had been drafted into Tibet after the "Young-husband Mission," and a disagreement arose between the Dalai and the Amban, both of whom held letters of authority from Peking, fighting ensued, and the "Golden Soldiers," or Lamas, were defeated after a hard struggle by the better armed Chinese troops.

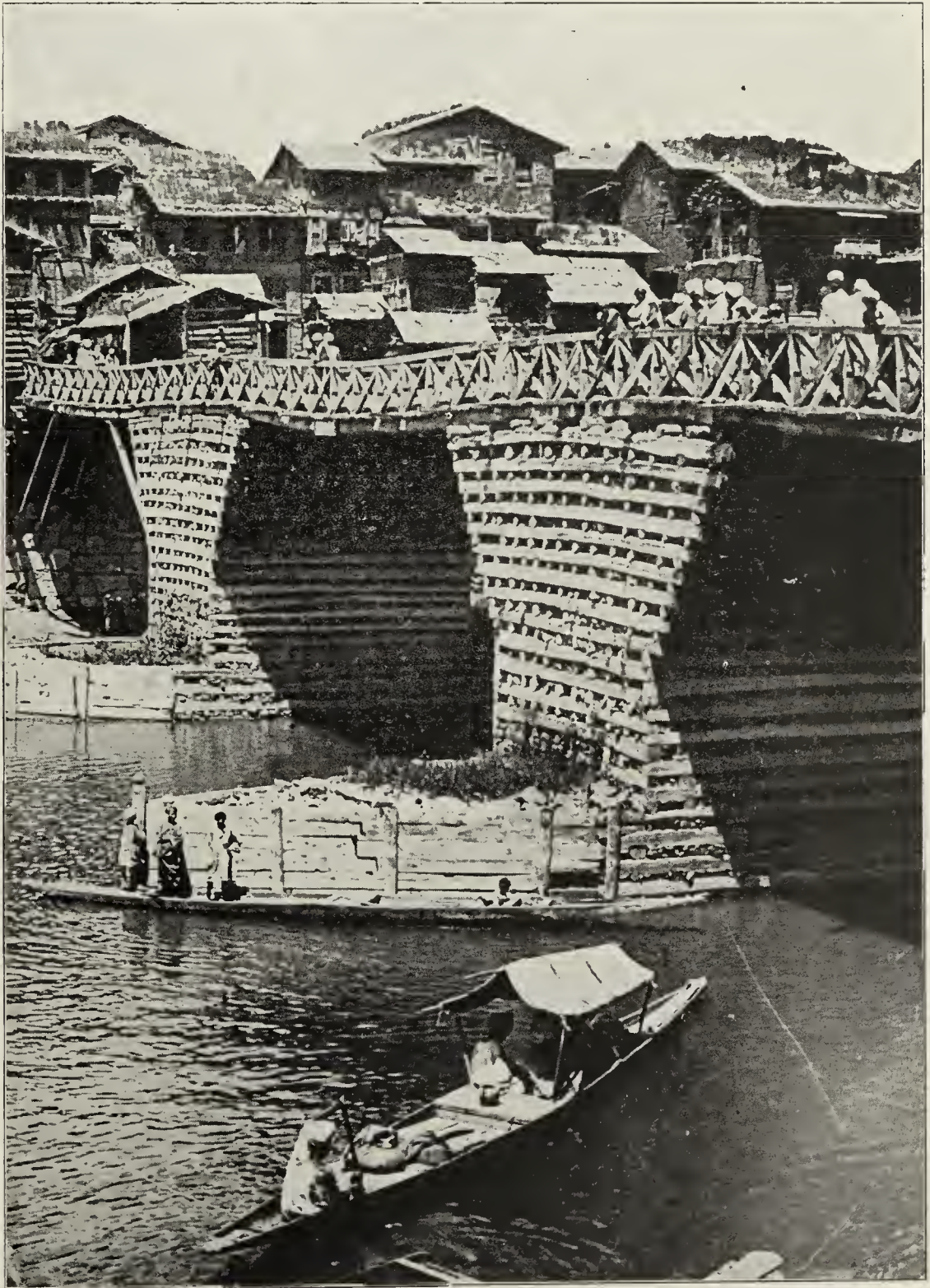
The reception of the Dalai at Darjeeling, picturesquely described as follows by the *Times of India*, affords an excellent insight into the life and customs of the native population of this portion of the Indian frontier.

By an early hour, large crowds had assembled in and near the chowrasta in expectation of the mounted party, and at 10 o'clock a procession started from the Mall, composed of monks and the Lamas of three neighbouring monasteries and a number of Buddhist representatives, eager to welcome to British territory the being held in peerless sanctity throughout Tibet, Mongolia, Ladakh, and the Himalayan Buddhist States, and adored as God incarnate from Baikal to Western China.

From Darjeeling to the village known as The Third Mile is a good 7 miles' walk; but, even on a normal occasion, none could begrudge the time spent in its accomplishment. The eternal hills and vales, lightly wrapped in a bluish tint, enveloping the whole eminence and receding dales, the play of light and shade among the trees and the bleak, grey slopes, invest the traveller's course with a glory before which description pales; but to-day the majestic scene was relieved by many colours, and groups of brightly-clad devotees in gala array enlivened the narrow winding roadway. On the slope, at frequent intervals, gay coifs and multi-coloured, dome-shaped hats, flanked by woollen lappets with red buttons and streamers, crimson sleeves and shawls, lozenged stockings, shawls and plaids of magenta, green, grey and yellow, corals and turquoises, golden pins and clasps, shining necklaces and armlets, blended in a moving harmony of colours. Soon from group to group rose the faint curling smoke of innumerable censers, and the air was filled with the scent of joss sticks and aromatic grasses; while praying wheels began assiduously to turn, and on eminences above the whole, praying flags swayed gently to the caress of soft breezes.

As one advanced beyond Chum, while the scenery became grander and wilder, the human aspects became correspondingly more unwonted and striking. At one point was to be discerned a resting place of local monks, with banners and trumpets laid by in readiness while the monks talked and slept. A little boy seated on the summit of a rock, clad in crimson and claret, and with a conical tiara on his

* A feature of interest on this line is the "loop"—the train passes under a bridge, a few minutes later crossing over it.



THE CITY OF THE SUN, KASHMIR
A curious Native Bridge

Photo, Underwood

head, afforded a striking relief to the sombre claret robes of the seniors of the order. Children who might have stepped out of a Louis XI tapestry, and women with singular aprons flowing behind them in two overlapping pleats, moved along the roadway with expectant faces. Every glance was directed towards The Third Mile, whence the cause of the assembly was to move.

From midday onwards, small advance trains of baggage mules, with bells and grey trappings, had been on the move along the hill crest, while their riders, with bronzed faces and crop heads, clad in dark, quilt-shaped caps, striding the gay saddle cloths with flanking provision baskets, diverted their course towards the asylum now almost in view. It was not till 2 o'clock, however, that the eager gaze discerned the main body of the travel-stained procession winding up the slope to the village, where the first representatives of British tradition were to meet it. While the first outriders advanced into The Third Mile, Mr. Nigenar Tanduk (Sub-Deputy Collector of Darjeeling), representing the Deputy Commissioner, and thus indirectly the Government of India, and Mr. Shampe (Deputy Collector of Excise) advanced to meet them, and soon the higher officials began one by one to turn their shaggy mules and ponies into the narrow street where were the high Ministers and the Shapes, the members of the Kashak or Supreme Committee and of the general assembly, variously attired in bright robes, together with other gentlemen of inferior rank.

The eyes of all, however, were fixed upon a dignified figure in saffron and crimson mounted on a grey pony; and with ascetic, pointed face with moustache. After acknowledging the duty of the leading Buddhist representatives, a guard of Gurkhas presented arms on his passing. The crowd of believers bowed low and prostrated themselves in adoration. The monks and lamas advanced with fragrant censers and sticks, while a small bodyguard of six men, clearing the way like lictors, moved in attendance, and behind the royal and sacerdotal palanquin carried in rear followed a train of dependents and lesser attendants.

The Dalai Lama had reached the inner asylum of British territory. The procession advanced with dignified faces towards Ghum, and noticeable were the figures of the Ministers and Shapes and that of the white-clad military To chen. At an appointed spot on the road, the main body of the Darjeeling monks and lamas met the procession and advanced at its head with banners flying and trumpets blaring. Soon the sacred protagonist of the day's events dismounted and ascended into the palanquin, which was lifted shoulder high, while beneath its saffron covering was shaded the serene, immovable and dignified countenance. The Maharajah Kumai of Sikkim joined the train before long, and at Jalapahar it was met by the Deputy Commissioner and District Magistrate. Various incongruous figures of curious tourists, flippant soldiery and others swelled the procession as it advanced into the station proper, and soon the entire train was winding down the last slope into the Mall. Here were particularly noticeable the sobs and the tears of many women and the grave looks of many men among the on-lookers, to whom the procession appeared the outward form of an historical *debacle*, the symbol of a tragic "Ichabod."

When the gateway of the Drumdruid Hotel was reached, the train swerved into it, and His Holiness was borne into the gateway and disappeared from sight. Without, by the doorway, was noticeable a small surface on which the symbol of the Lamaistic faith had been arranged crossways in rice. The Ministers and followers dismounted and one by one entered the building, while attendants led the tired mules and ponies into the inner courtyard. Slowly the curious throng dispersed to discuss in many homes and hostelrys the day's unwonted events.

His Holiness the Dalai Lama is the guest of the British Government, and India's first reception to him and to his Court has been not unworthy of the unparalleled traditions embodied in his person.

Although this event took place some years ago it gives an excellent description of the picturesque life of Darjeeling. One of the most beautiful sights in the world is obtained from Tiger Hill—sunrise over Mount Everest.

Bihar and Orissa

This Province was formed, in 1912, by taking from the Bengal administration the districts of Bihar, Orissa, Chota-Nagpur and Sambalpur; comprising an area of 83,181 square miles with a population of 33,662,189.

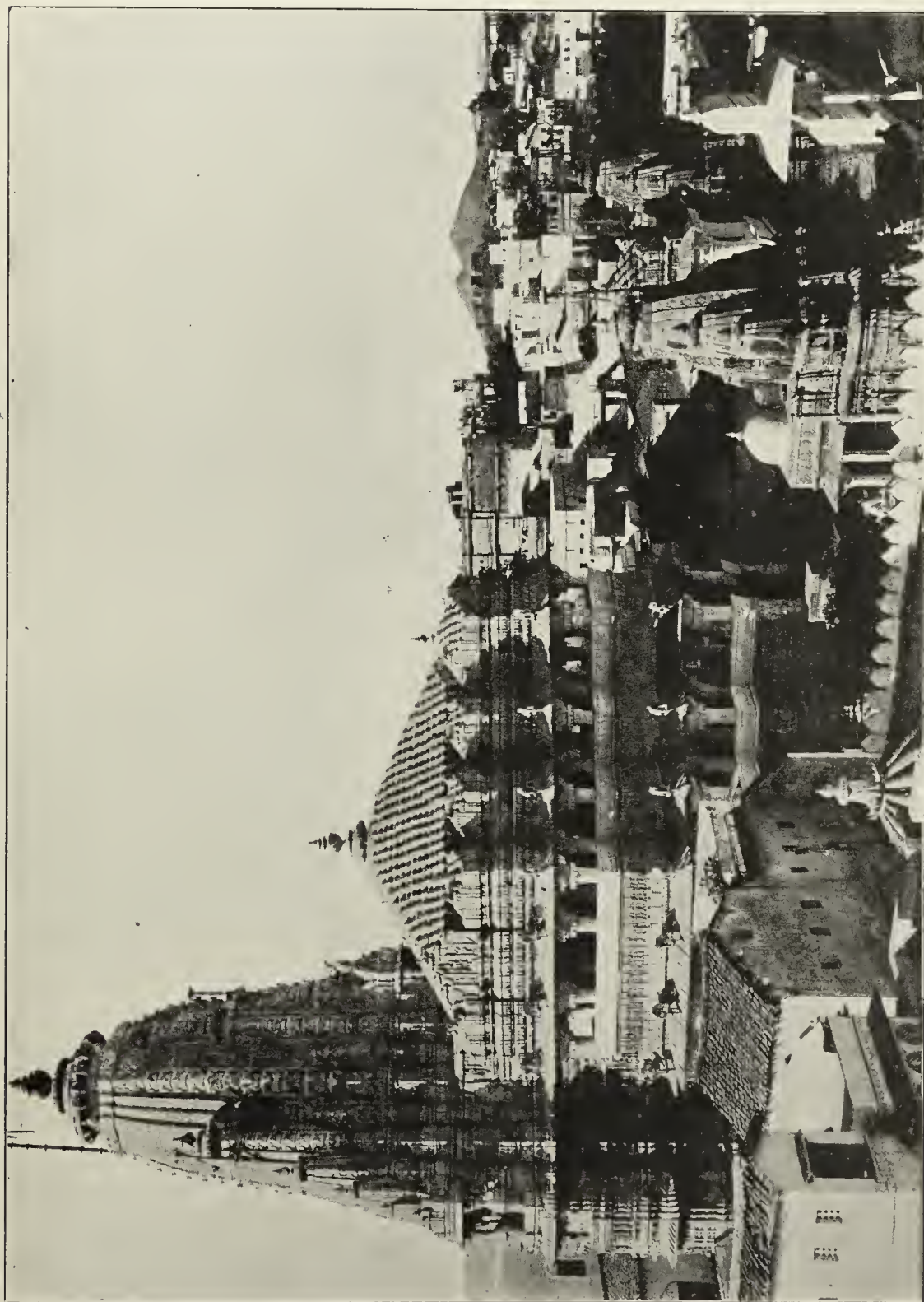
It is a portion of British India which is subject to disastrous famines. Bihar suffers from a rigorous climate, with extremities of temperature, and a very dense population. Orissa and Nagpur are liable to drought during the long, hot and dry summer. A considerable seaboard on the Bay of Bengal has, however, been given to Orissa, and this tends to mitigate the often disastrous effects of the absence of water.

Chota-Nagpur is a mountainous district, with wild-looking ranges and plateaux interspersed with low jungle-filled valleys. It has a large aboriginal population.

The principal coal and mica mines of India are situated in this province, and, notwithstanding the periodical droughts, wheat, sugar, oilseeds, tobacco, and especially, rice, are largely grown, mostly with the aid of irrigation.

Patna, the capital, is a large and commercially important city with a population of about 117,890. No less than three railway systems cross this portion of India. At Puri, in Orissa, is situated the great Hindu temple of Juggernaut, one of the most curious buildings in India.

The people of this province are mostly Hindus, but a great variety of languages are spoken, including *Hindi* and the aboriginal



UDAIPUR, GENERAL VIEW

dialect, called *Oriya*. This variety of tongues makes it advisable to analyse here the language problem of British India.

The literary language and the *lingua franca* of the Peninsula is *Hindustani*, which is a dialect of *Hindi*, and is spoken by about 83,000,000 people; *Bengali* is understood by 48,000,000; *Telugu* by 24,000,000; *Marathi* by 20,000,000; *Tamil* by 18,000,000; *Punjabi* by 16,000,000; and *Rajasthani* by 14,000,000. These are the principal languages, but there are also: (1) *Western Hindi*; (2) *Oriya*; (3) *Gujarati*; (4) *Kanarese*; (5) *Malayim*; and (6) *Burmese*; as well as a large number of

mountainous border of the Central Indian plateau. The area is approximately 106,300 square miles and the population about 44,025,787. Like Bengal, these United Provinces have two capitals and an attendant hill station. Both Allahabad and Lucknow, which lie on the plains, form the administrative headquarters during certain periods of the year, and one of the two districts of these provinces which run up into the Himalayas contains Naini-Tâl, the little Government hill-station.

Topographically they form a portion of the plains of Northern India, and are generally



BENARES FROM THE GANGES

dialects, such as *Lehnda* and *Pushtu*, of minor importance and used principally in the Punjab and along the vast land frontiers of India. The basis of many of the languages in this portion of Asia is, however, *Sanskrit*.

Agra and Oudh

These two inland northern provinces have been united under one administration since 1877, but until 1902 they were called the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. They form the northern portion of the Ganges plain, and lie between the Himalayas and the

flat, closely cultivated, and very densely populated. The rainfall is more regular and irrigation less necessary than in the Punjab, which adjoins the north-western border of these provinces; but in the central and western districts, however, irrigation becomes absolutely necessary. Three-quarters of the population are Hindus, the remainder being mostly Mohammedans. The language of the people is Hindi, but in the better class native society Urdu, which is a mixture of Persian and Hindi, is largely spoken. The form of government is the same as that of all Provinces of British India (see *Government*).

The chief product is wheat, but barley, rice, pulse, millet, tobacco, indigo, cotton, sugar and oilseeds are very largely grown.

The population of Lucknow, which is the provincial capital for Oudh, is about 230,870 ; and of Allahabad, which is the capital of Agra, about 156,108. Large cities are here more numerous than in any other portion of India. Among the most important, other than the two capitals, may be named the sacred Hindu City of Benares, which has a population of over 196,400 ; Agra, the ancient capital, which contains the famous

havens of Eastern beauty often portrayed in legend, are nevertheless embellished with edifices of unequalled magnificence, shaded by the tracery of delicate foliage and flowers, lit by the light of the tropics, and enveloped in a halo of romance. Benares is the most sacred city in India, and its story is one of exceptional interest, as it illustrates, in a remarkable way, the rapid manner in which a popular religion spreads from state to state, be the distances what they may.

From time immemorial Benares and its river, the holy Ganges, have been pilgrim



JUMA MASJID, DELHI

Taj Mahal, and is the habitat of 185,532 people ; Meerut, famous as the actual starting point of the Indian Mutiny, with a population of nearly 123,000 ; and Cawnpore, the scene of the infamous massacre of women and children, which is now a large manufacturing centre of about 240,000 inhabitants.

BENARES.

The plains of India teem with cities of historic, human, and architectural interest, which, although by no means the unsullied

spots of great sanctity famed throughout Hindustan, but it was destined to become, long before the advent of the Christian era, the "Holy City" of a great religion whose disciples spread far and wide over the continent of Asia. In the year 582 B.C. a young prince, born in the neighbouring territory, renounced all the riches and comforts of the world and went into the "wilderness" to obtain "perfect enlightenment." This, which is known as the "Great Renunciation," was followed by many years' seclusion and privation in the jungle, where he studied

with two Brahman hermits, but finding no consolation he abandoned asceticism and returned to a more natural way of life. Torn with doubts whether it was right or wrong to abandon the holy life of a recluse, and forsaken by his disciples, he was sitting alone in the shade of the Bodhi tree, now known as the sacred Bo-tree, when he be-

life of love, benevolence, and strict self-control.

Gautama Buddha, for such was this young prophet's name, returned from his seclusion in the jungle and laid the foundation, by preaching in the Deer Forest near Benares, of the Buddhist faith, which rapidly spread over the whole of Hindustan, to the hill state



CHANDNI CHAUK, DELHI

came insensible to earthly things, and a vision revealed to him the source of happiness and the foundation of all wisdom—he had obtained "Nirvana." Henceforth he became known as Buddha, "the Enlightened," and at this, his "second birth," he saw clearly that the right way of life was to follow the narrow and difficult path which divides asceticism from sensuality—to live a

of Nepal, across the Himalayas to Tibet, extending eastwards to Burma, China, and Japan, and south to Ceylon; embracing with marvellous rapidity nearly half the population of the earth.

Benares became the "Mecca" of the Buddhist faith, and retained its holy glory for many hundreds of years; but gradually Hinduisim, the older faith, gained the



THE PEARL MOSQUE, DELHI

ascendency throughout Northern India, and after the lapse of nearly ten centuries Benares again became the sacred city of the Hindus.

The Buddhist faith, with the different forms it has taken in China and Tibet, endures to this day, and its adherents are estimated at 138,000,000.

Christianity has about 564,000,000 of adherents; Hinduism, which the Buddhist faith temporarily supplanted in India, about 210,000,000; while the followers of Islam number over 221,000,000, and reside principally in India, the Turkish Empire, Persia, Arabia, and North and Central Africa. There is also the Parsee faith, which has some 500,000 adherents, principally in the Bombay Presidency.

It is a curious fact that, although Buddhism, which received its first impetus in Benares, can lay claim to the nominal adherence of about 138,000,000 people, it is as rare in the Indian Peninsula as Christianity is in Palestine.

Near the present city of Benares there still exists, amid the maze of temples, palaces and religious buildings of multitudinous creeds and kinds, one monument of Buddha's holy sway, a solid tower of over 100 ft. high, with carved base—the Great Stupa of Sarmath. This column, erected by the Emperor Asoka, stands on the spot where Gautama preached his first sermon on Buddhism, which, in an incredibly short space of time, spread over the whole of Eastern Asia. Even now the Lamas of Tibet, the priests from Ceylon, and the simple Pongees from Burma, with their bright yellow garments, whose belief necessitates their begging for their daily bread from door to door, visit and decorate this monument which marks the birthplace of the Buddhist faith.

After the conversion of India to the old faith (Hinduism) the city of Benares was gradually transferred from its old site, until to-day it spreads along the banks of the sacred Ganges, some miles from the Stupa at Sarmath, which was once in the midst of the Buddhist city.

Benares, although famous for its beaten silver and brass work, is, above all, the holy city of the Hindus, whereto pilgrimages are made by devout persons that they may there bathe in the waters of the Ganges and so absolve themselves from sin. It is the headquarters of one of the "Caste Tribunals," a

mysterious social court which levies fines and penances for breach of the curious and complicated regulations, based chiefly on race, employment, and locality, which exercise a beneficent, restraining influence over the work, customs, and life of all Hindus.

To mention here all the temples and fine buildings of Benares would be impossible, as there is scarcely an acre which does not possess many palaces, shrines, and sacred edifices. The temple dedicated to the goddess Dargu, wife of the god Siva, is built of the usual red sandstone, but possesses magnificent gates of burnished brass. The Golden Temple is another massive, though less picturesque structure; and the Burning Ghat on the banks of the Ganges is the place where the bodies of the dead are cremated in public and the ashes cast into the holy water. The custom of "Suttee," or the burning of widows on the bodies of their husbands, which took place in this and other parts of India, was prohibited by Lord William Bentinck in 1829. The gay bazaars of Benares are crowded with pilgrims from all parts, and sacred cows, adorned and petted, are led triumphant through the streets. When the sky darkens in the east and the last rays of the setting sun glint on the spires and cupolas no muzzein calls the faithful to prayer from the minarets of innumerable mosques, as on the shores of the Bosphorus, at Fez, or in old Cairo, but thousands flock to the riverside and Benares bathes in its holy waters.

LUCKNOW.

Lucknow, the provincial capital of Oudh, has been much altered and improved since the pre-mutiny days, by the obliteration of the maze of native streets and bazaars which pressed close around the Residency. It now has a fine European quarter along the banks of the Goomtree, with monuments, churches, Government offices, houses and well kept gardens, gay with trees and flowers, besides crowded native bazaars and streets, with many factories, and a population of 230,870. It is, however, around the ruins of the old Residency and the other spots which loom large in the annals of history, that British interest centres.

Who could repress a feeling of pride, not unmingled with sadness, when following the



HUMAYUN'S TOMB, DELHI

line-of-march of the relieving forces under Havelock and Campbell? On the southern limits of Lucknow stands the Alum Bagh (Light of the World), gallantly stormed and held during the second siege by the 90th Light Infantry; then comes the Dilkusha Palace, and the Martinère College, the boys from which did not quail when ordered by the brave and able Sir Henry Lawrence to

soft Indian zephyrs rustling the banyan, the palm and the peepul, are the shattered, crumbling, and creeper-clad walls of the Old Residency, with its historic tower over which the banner of England blows.

As is the case with most Eastern cities, the distant view of Lucknow is the best. From afar its shining white palaces, domes and minarets, mingling with the green of trees,



SAFARJANG'S TOMB, DELHI

assist in the defence of the Residency; next, the Secunder Bagh (the garden of Alexander the Great), stormed by the 93rd Highlanders and Sikhs; then through the famous Baillie's guard gate, where once the shots fell thick and the air shook with the thunder of the guns, and the grounds of the old Residency are entered. Here all is peace. Standing surrounded by a beautiful garden, gay with the bloom of roses and bougainvillea, with the

inspire enthusiasm, which, however, somewhat abates when the city is entered, although the gardens are unusually beautiful. There are several buildings which bear close inspection, such as the Kaisarbagh, a magnificent palace built at a cost of 10,000,000 rupees by the last King of Oudh, or the Chattr Manzil, a pure white pile surmounted by a gold cupola, which blazes in the bright sunlight. This palace, which at one time



THE KUTAB MINAR, DELHI

contained the harem of the King, has been converted into a fine club.

CAWNPORE.

This city is a place of pilgrimage for all white visitors to India, for it was the scene of the terrible massacre of women and children by the notorious Nana Sahib when the mutineers were giving way before the determined advance of the "Avenging Army." Cawnpore is, however, something more than a city of historic interest, as it has become an important collecting and distributing centre for the whole of this portion of India. There is a considerable European mercantile colony, and the native population numbers about 240,000. The chimneys of cotton and jute mills which mark Bombay and Calcutta, are also a distinguishing feature of Cawnpore, which has developed an extensive manufacturing industry. Leather-working, which has for many years been associated with this city, was first given its impetus by the establishment of a Government military harness factory, which quickly stimulated private enterprise to undertake the manufacture of harness, saddlery and boots, especially as a Government contract was obtained by several firms for the supply of military equipment. About the architecture of this city little can be said, for it is a curious mixture of East and West.

AGRA.

Of all the cities of India, Agra and Delhi—the Imperial Capital—are perhaps the richest in historic and architectural interest. But there are two Agras, between which flows the broad Jumna; one, the ruins of the ancient city of the Lodi Kings, whose dominion extended far and wide before the rise of the Mogul Empire, and the other, the city of to-day, with the adjoining European cantonment, the capital of Akbar, Jahangir, and Shar Jehan. It is, however, to the latter Emperor that Agra, as well as Delhi, owes many of its most beautiful buildings.

Within the grounds of Agra fort, a massive structure of crumbling red-sandstone with ponderous copper-plated gates and imposing battlements overhanging the river, constructed in the days of Akbar, stands the Moti Masjid, or Pearl Mosque, a building of exquisite purity, wholly in keeping with its

sacred purpose, built in later years by Shar Jehan, whose court was ever open to the artists of the world.

Temples, mosques, and palaces, however, fade into mediocrity before the glittering white majesty of the Taj Mahal. This colossal mausoleum of marble, which reflects its stately beauty on the shining surface of the Jumna, was erected by Shar Jehan in memory of his beloved wife, Arjumand Banu, "The Crown of the Palace." In the crypt are the graves of both Emperor and Empress, which, even to this day, after the lapse of centuries, are adorned with flowers by the faithful.

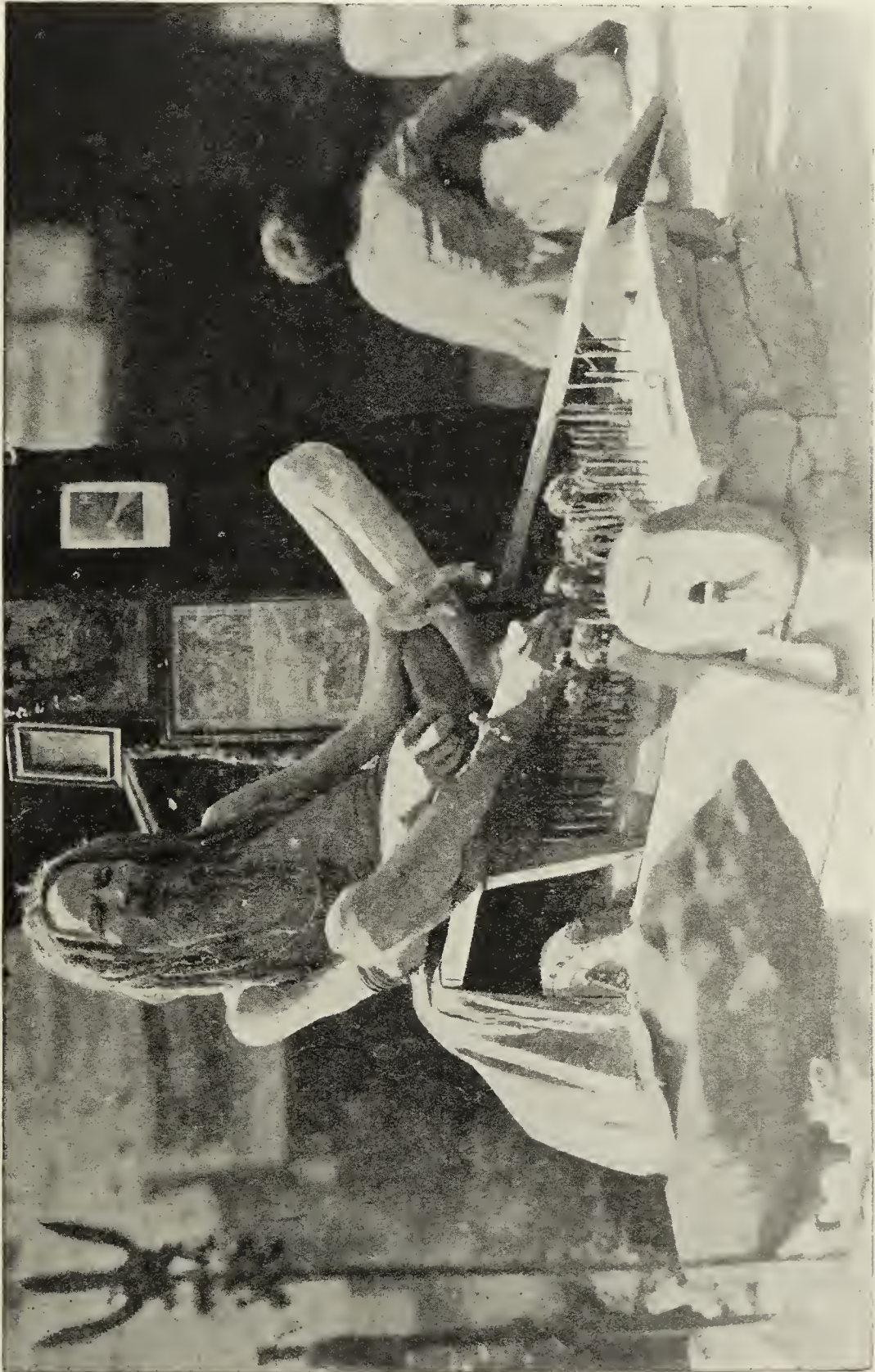
Some 20 miles from Agra stands the deserted Mogul capital, Fatehpur Sikri, a confused mass of silent temples, palaces, and tombs, enclosed by crumbling walls. Originally destined by Akbar to become the capital of the Mogul Empire, after being constructed at enormous cost of labour and life it was abandoned for Agra in consideration of its superior position on the River Jumna.

Shar Jehan did not confine his passion for architectural magnificence to Agra alone. After the first few years of his reign he decided to move the seat of government from Akbar's capital to Delhi, which he caused to be embellished with buildings more extensive and even more magnificent than those of Agra.

Delhi

CAPITAL OF THE INDIAN EMPIRE.

Carved out of the Punjab, and on the borders of the United Provinces, is the small *enclave* which is under the direct administration of the supreme Government, as it contains the Imperial City of Delhi, the old and the new capital of the Indian Empire. Previously to the transfer of the seat of British power to the ancient capital of the Mogul Empire, Calcutta had held this honourable position for over 140 years, and is still, commercially, the chief city of India, as well as the headquarters of the Bengal Administration. It was, in part, the desire that the Government of India should not be in such intimate communication with the Provincial Administration that caused the change.



AN INDIAN FAKIR SEATED ON A COUCH OF NAILS Photo, courtesy Canadian Pacific Cruise Dept.

The ancient city of Delhi, which has a population of over 578 550 (district of capital) contains the famous Juma Masjid, or Great Mosque, completed by Shar Jehan. It is a solid-looking yet picturesque structure with pink stone minarets and white cupolas. The Palace, which is now the fort, is composed of many buildings, domes, towers, and walls, of marble and pink stone. In this building the Hall of Private Audience, which overlooks the river, is a marvel of delicate tracery and inlaid work, and the entrance chamber, which is 375 ft. in length and is crowned with a lofty dome, has been described as the noblest entrance to any existing palace.

The walls, which surround Delhi on three sides, were also constructed during the reign of Shar Jehan, but the enclosed city is modern compared with the ruins of the ancient capital, generally termed Old Delhi, which encircles the outskirts of the present city. These crumbling remnants of by-gone empires call for no remarks here as their interest lies more in their historic value as relics of the Ayran dominion and succeeding dynasties, than in their symmetry or beauty of colouring.

All through Indian history Delhi has played a prominent part. It was the capital of the Mogul Empire, later becoming the centre of the Great Mutiny. After the massacre of British officers at the Lahore Gate, and of European women and children in the city, it was besieged by the British forces, and fell, after successive attacks. The last of the Mogul Emperors was sent a prisoner to Burma. It was here, in 1877, that Queen Victoria was proclaimed Empress of India, and it again made history during the Coronation visit of the Emperor George V, the greatest of India's kings.

Delhi, previous to the British Raj, was for many centuries the Royal City of India, and embellished with new and modern buildings for housing the administrative staff, it has again become the Imperial Capital of the most powerful Empire in Asia.

The Punjab

This province came under British dominion nearly fifty years later than the older provinces. It occupies the north-west corner of the vast plain of Northern India, and

derives its name from the "Five Rivers" which flow across its territory, on their way from their sources amid the snow-fields of the Himalayas to their junction with the Arabian Sea. The main stream is the Indus, which, with the other four rivers—the Sutlej, Chenab, Rávi, and Jhelum—unite near the southern border of the province.

The Punjab, which has an area of 99,800 square miles and a population of 21,725,024, is generally flat and closely cultivated. It differs but little from the other portions of the plains of Northern India, with the exception of a colder winter season and a very scanty rainfall, which makes irrigation absolutely necessary. It skirts the foot-hills of the Himalayas along its northern border, and, at one point, where it joins the north-west frontier province, it includes a small portion of mountainous Himalayan country.

The Indo-Gangetic plain, of which the Punjab forms the north-eastern corner, the United Provinces the centre, and Bengal the western extremity, is the largest area of flat, closely-cultivated territory in the world, and it supports comparatively the largest population (average about one person to every acre). It has a total length of about 1,500 miles, and an average breadth of over 200 miles. This vast tract of country is entirely composed of river-sand and silt, and not a stone of any kind—not even a pebble—can be found. It has been shown by borings that this deposit of fine silt extends to a great depth below sea-level; and it is obvious that the Indo-Gangetic plain was, before the dawn of history, the bed of a sea, which had its northern shores on the Himalayas and its southern extremities at the foot of the Deccan Plateau of Central India.

On the irrigated fields, during the cold weather, wheat, barley, peas and linseed grow with the same luxuriance as in Europe, and the country is but little wooded. Sir Bampfylde Fuller says of the western region of the Indo-Gangetic plain: "There is a marked cold-weather season and some cold-weather rain may be expected; temperate crops such as wheat, barley, oats and peas can accordingly be grown during the so-called winter season, and cover about two-fifths of the cultivated area, the proportion rising as one goes westwards (Bengal is tropical). These crops are reaped towards the middle of March or beginning of April, and until



LAHORE, CAPITAL OF THE PUNJAB
In the Native Bazaar

Photo, Underwood

the monsoon arrives, three months later, the country is barren save for a few irrigated patches of millet. During the rainy season the crops are tropical, such as maize, millet and cotton. So, within the course of a year, the face of the country changes from the similitude of Canada to that of the Sudan. We may find a similar contrast in the valley of the Nile. But there wheat ceases to grow south of the 25th parallel of latitude; in India it is cultivated as far south as the 21st parallel. The winter air of Northern India is chilled by the snows of the Himlayas; a fall of snow in the upper ranges sends a cold wind over the plains as far south as Nagpur. The rainfall of this western region, during both monsoon and cold-weather seasons, is variable and uncertain; the land is suitable for irrigation, and there are facilities for the construction of wells and canals. Here it is accordingly that irrigation works have attained their widest development. Speaking of the people of the Punjab the same well-known Indian authority says: "In the population Mohammedans predominate, but not very greatly. The Jats are its most distinctive people, sturdy men of much independence of character. A large proportion of them have been converted to Islam, and from the ranks of those who remained Hindu was formed, for the most part, the Protestant Denomination of the Sikhs. On the western border the language is Lehnda; going eastwards this shades into Punjabi, and this again into a dialect of Hindi. These are all in origin akin to Sanskrit. The Punjab is of great political importance, since it is the best recruiting ground in British territory for the Indian Army."

The capital of the Punjab is Lahore, which has a population of over 300,000. In this city stands the beautiful white mausoleum of Ranjit Singh, the *Lion of the Punjab*; and the still more beautiful Moti Masjid of the Emperor Jahangir, a spotless pile of marble.

The other important towns are Multan, Amballa, and Amritsar. In Amritsar, the sacred city of the Sikhs, which has a population of about 172,130, rising out of a small lake, known as the *Pool of Immortality*, is the *Golden Temple*—the Vatican of the Sikh religion.

In the north-eastern corner of the Punjab, where this province fringes the Himalayan

ranges, is the pretty and fashionable hill resort of Simla, lying tree- and flower-embowered on the lower slopes of the Great Range. It is the summer headquarters of the Supreme Government of India, and also of the Provincial Administration of the Punjab.

The North-West Frontier Province

This small area of mountainous country, which lies on the Afghan tribal border, includes five British districts—the Trans-Indus districts of Peshawar, portions of Hazara, Bannu, Kohat, and Dera Ismail Khan. It has an area of about 25,600 square miles and a population of 2,292,620. It was constituted a separate province, under a Chief Commissioner directly responsible to the Government of India, on 9th November, 1901 by the transfer of the five districts from the Punjab. In addition, however, to the actual territory forming this province, the administration has to keep a close watch on the passes, fortifications, and turbulent tribes of the Kurram, Malakand (Swat, Dir, and Chitral) Tochi, Khyber, Gomal, Shirani and Waziristan regions.

The most important district of this province—which may be considered chiefly military in its objects and administration—is Peshawar; and the town of the same name, which has a population of about 109,680, is the capital. Rawal Pindi, one of the chief military centres in this portion of India, is situated on the borders of this province, and strategic roads and railway lines lead from this point and from Peshawar to all the passes and other defensible points. There is now a line, 28 miles in length, from Jamrud, through the Khyber Pass, to Landi Kotal, on the Afghan border.

The most serious responsibilities of the Chief Commissioner, who is directly responsible to the Government of India, concern the mountainous borderland across the frontier, which is inhabited by turbulent tribes whose control may at any time raise political questions with Afghanistan. Until 1901 this province formed part of the Punjab. It was constituted in order that frontier politics might receive more continuous attention, and might come more closely under the watch of the Government of India. The



THE GOLDEN TEMPLE AND POOL OF IMMORTALITY, AMRITSAR

population of the province is almost wholly Mohammedan. The people generally speak Pushtu, a language that is connected with Persian.*

The topography of the North-West Frontier Province is extremely mountainous, and the general aspect one of grey, boulder-strewn mountain sides, interspersed with fairly fertile plains of small area, and rugged passes. The climate is cold in winter on the more lofty Himalayan heights, and the passes are frequently blocked with snow. The products are wheat, oilseeds, barley, and cotton. There is also a flourishing exchange trade, by way of the passes, with Afghanistan.

Bombay Presidency

This Presidency, which is second in order of importance among the British provinces, has an area of 123,600 square miles and a population of 19,158,219, most of whom are either Hindus or Mohammedans. This, however, does not include the native states attached to the Bombay Government, which make a further addition to this territory of about 70,000 square miles and 9,000,000 people.

The Bombay Presidency includes tracts and peoples of great diversity. On the sea coast, at the extreme south, there are Kanarese; to the north we enter the Mahratta country, which lies for the most part in the basaltic area of the peninsula where the rainfall is precarious and the main crops are millet and cotton. Below the hills which overlook the sea there is a narrow strip of rice country. Further north there is the tract known as Guzerât—at a low elevation, flat, and generally productive, but liable to catastrophic failures of rainfall. Finally there is the detached district of Sind, which is quite distinct from the rest of the province and has its closest affinities with the Punjab. Different languages are spoken in these four localities. The people of the province are undoubtedly the most progressive in India. It may be that they have more independence of character: authority certainly sits very lightly upon a Mahratta. It is probable that popular ideas have been leavened by the

emancipated energy of the Parsis, who are a very influential element in the community. But, whatever the reason, it was in the Bombay Presidency that the extreme formalities of caste rules were first disregarded, and it is here that relaxations in weightier prejudices have become more general. The headquarters of the Government are at Bombay and Poona; there is a small hill-station at Mahableshwar on a plateau of the coast range. Among the towns, Ahmedabad (population approximately 310,000) in Guzerât, and Karachi (population 260,000) the port of Sind, deserve special mention. For administrative purposes Aden and Perim have been attached to the Government of Bombay.

In the interior cotton is largely cultivated to supply the many Bombay mills; but the coast line is formed by the steep slopes of the Western Ghats, many of which rise in bold headlands from the Arabian sea.

CITY OF BOMBAY.

The collection of dingy bungalows which formed Bombay during the Portuguese dominion gave no indication of the brilliant future in store. This island was transferred to the British Crown as a portion of the dowry of Princess Catharine of Portugal on her marriage with King Charles II, and was leased to the East India Company, in 1668, in exchange for an annual payment of £10, a striking contrast to the 25 square miles of bricks and mortar which to-day form the capital of this great Indian presidency; second only in size to Calcutta, and the port which handles nearly 40 per cent. of India's foreign trade.†

The prosperity of Bombay and Calcutta forms an index to the commercial progress of the whole of India, for over 80 per cent. of the total foreign trade of the Empire passes through these ports. Bombay is the *depôt* not only for the commerce of the Province, but for the whole of western India, the Deccan and central India. Between 3,500,000 and 4,000,000 tons of shipping annually enters this great port. The value of the sea-borne trade is between 70 and 80 millions sterling. Karachi, the northernmost port

* Sir J. Bampfylde Fuller, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., in *Empire of India*.

† Tangier, Morocco, also formed a portion of the dowry of the bride of the "Merry Monarch," and was transferred to the British Crown in 1662; but, after withstanding continued assaults by the Moors, it was, unfortunately, evacuated twenty years later.



PRIMITIVE INDIA
Sprinkling the streets with water

on the west coast, now almost monopolises the external trade of the valleys of the Indus and Sutlej; but the value of this is small compared with that which passes over the quays and docks of Bombay and Calcutta.

The small ports of India, many of which are only fair-weather anchorages, play but a minor part in the enormous foreign commerce of the country, which has an annual average value of over £400,000,000. It is one of Great Britain's chief markets for manufactured articles; taking yearly more than

Although representatives of every Asiatic nation and Malayan island may be seen amid the crowd, there is one sect, the Parsis, which calls Bombay its own. Few of these disciples of Zoroaster are poor, for the tenets of their religion enjoin brotherly friendship and mutual assistance; they may be termed the Jews of the East. In Bombay the centre of this colony is on Malabar Hill, where many live luxuriously in fine seaside villas; but where they differ most from all other religions is not in their mode of life, but in the dis-



A TRIBESMAN OF THE N.W. FRONTIER

£80,000,000 worth, besides supplying the British Isles with an immense quantity of raw cotton, jute, rice, hides, tea, wheat, indigo, silk, coffee, drugs, and various spices and essences.

To describe Bombay thoroughly, with its 1,258,000 inhabitants, one would have to begin by enumerating the characteristics of nearly all the races of India, and could not finish until the fifty, or more, religions, hundred of castes, and scores of languages had all received attention, for the streets and bazaars of this great seaport present such a scene of mixed nationalities and creeds as positively to defy description.

position of their bodies after death. Unlike Hindus they are not cremated or burnt, nor buried like Christians, but are carried up to the "Towers of Silence"—low ramparts of grey stone overlooking the Arabian Sea—and there laid on gratings as an offering to the birds of prey. Over this garden of death vultures and other carrion birds are continually hovering, for beneath, lying cold and still on the gratings, are the latest dead—rich and poor, men, women, and children—of the Parsi faith.

Stone slabs once supported the bodies until devoured, but considerations of health



A KONYAK NAGA WOMAN

Photo, J. P. Mills

On the Assam-China frontier there are still wild, head-hunting tribes. This woman is the widow of a man whose head has been taken, and who is dressed for a tribal feast

induced the Bombay authorities to request that they be changed for gratings through which the bones could drop—but enough of the grim Towers of Silence and dead Parsis, for here are the living, pale, amber-complexioned men of Persian descent with black mitres and coats, and delicate-looking women with flowing veils of the prettiest shades. It is to these clever financiers and loyal, though somewhat ostentatious people, that Bombay owes some of its prosperity.

The maritime portion of the city is certainly not encouraging, for here are the godowns, wharves, and other unsightly edifices of a busy port. In the native quarters the streets are full of “jostling jains” and other queer people, from the parchment-faced Tibetan and the keen-featured Afghan to the swarthy Lascar and the solemn-visaged Chinaman. The atmosphere is, in places, laden with Eastern scents; the pungent fumes of the native hookah mingle with the perfume of sandal-wood, joss-sticks and rose-water; but these scenes pass away as if by magic when some of the best European thoroughfares are entered.

A walk on the Apollo Bunder when the sun is setting over the Arabian sea, and the faint yet cooling breeze of evening tempers the heat, is certainly most enjoyable. Lights twinkle like stars over the placid waters of the bay, and disappearing in the gathering gloom is Elephanta Isle.

Bombay has, during recent years, suffered considerably from the plague, which, notwithstanding the efforts of a splendid Board of Health, cannot be crushed out, owing, no doubt, partly to overcrowding in the native city, the congeries of Asiatic races, and the difficulty of inculcating into the native the necessity of cleanliness in the house. Rats are ruthlessly exterminated, and the comparatively few precautions at present known to prevent the spread of this scourge of Asia are taken, but it assumes considerable proportions during the rains and flickers on through the hot season.

Across the bay lies Elephanta Isle, a place of snakes, beggars, and caves. Rough stone steps lead up to the ancient subterranean Hindu Temple, which consists of several chambers of considerable size hewn out of the solid rock. As a place of worship it has long been discarded, and is now visited only by tourists and a few beggars, who do all in their

power to sell anything from coloured beetles to native walking sticks. There is seldom much to interest the ordinary mortal in the interior of a cave, but here there are many crude carvings in the face of the rock, most of them representing the Hindu Triad *Siva*, the destroyer; *Vishnu*, the preserver; and *Brahma*, the creator, all however, much disfigured during the Portuguese dominion.

Central Provinces and Berar

This tract of country lies on the edge of the great peninsular plateau, and includes the Satpura Range, which forms the dividing line between the plains of Northern India and the mountain encircled plateau of Southern India. These provinces have an area of 99,880 square miles, and a population of about 13,909,821, which is largely made up of aboriginal tribes, Hindus and Mahrattas. In the country lying to the north of the Satpura Range the language is Hindi, and to the south of these mountains it is principally Mahratti, although in the eastern districts a curious Hindi dialect is largely spoken.

The country generally is hilly and jungle covered, but there are many extensive and well-cultivated areas, especially in the districts of Berar, which is very fertile, and produces some of the finest cotton in India. In the Mahratta country, south of the Range, millet and cotton are the principal crops; to the north, in the Narbada valley, wheat is largely grown; while in the extreme south-east rice is the staple agricultural product. These provinces are crossed by two railway systems; the Great Indian Peninsula, and the Bengal-Nagpur lines, which have done much to stimulate the systematic exploitation of this great central block of territory.

This portion of the Peninsula, as far south as Nagpur, is blest with a cold season and some cold-weather rain, which enables temperate crops, such as wheat and linseed to be largely grown during this period of the year, and tropical crops, such as millet and cotton, with the coming of the monsoon in June and November. The Central Provinces contain coalfields and some rich veins of iron-ore.

The aspect of this portion of the Indian peninsula is extremely varied. The slopes



KACHA NAGA GIRLS



ANGAMI NAGA GIRLS

Photos, J. P. Mills

Waiting for husbands ! Unmarried girls at a feast. Each is holding a leaf-cup of rice beer as an offering to prospective husbands

of the Satpura hills are wild looking and forest covered, but there are many open plateaux of considerable area, which are well cultivated. The forest growth in this portion of India bears little resemblance to the dense tropical jungles of the Madras and Malabar coasts; and the landscape is almost everywhere broken by wild-looking hill crests. During the cold months the broad fields of ripening wheat afford a wonderful contrast against the dark green foliage of the encircling forest; but, during the hot

there is a growing European community, and it possesses cotton mills. The Dravidian races of the peninsula prefer to dress in fabrics of coloured yarn, while the inclination of the Hindus of Northern India is for pure white material, hence the Central Provinces share with the town of Dacca, in Eastern Bengal, the art of weaving by hand the finest and most sought-for cotton fabrics with very elaborate coloured designs. Nagpur is the headquarters of the Government during all except the very hot months, when a move



A RIVER SCENE, SOUTHERN INDIA

weather, much of the country looks parched and barren. The native houses are grouped together in villages, and not scattered promiscuously over the cultivated areas as is the case in many parts of the northern plains. The houses have gable roofs and small fruit and vegetable gardens, which add a tinge of picturesqueness to the country even during the parching heat of the summer months.

The capital of the Central Provinces is Nagpur, which has a population of about 145,193. It is chiefly a native town although

is made up to the pretty little Satpura hill-station of Pachmarhi, which is noted for the beauty of its surrounding scenery.

The only other town of special importance in these provinces is Jubbulpore, which not only is a place of increasing commercial importance but also possesses a large military cantonment and factory.

The eastern portion of the United Provinces was ceded to the East India Company by the Viceroy of Oudh in 1801; the State of Nagpur came under the direct control of the Indian Government by the operation of the

Policy of Lapse adopted by Lord Dalhousie in 1850; and Berar, forming the south-western corner of these provinces, was leased in perpetuity to the Government of India in return for an annual payment of £167,000 to the Nizam of Hyderabad, of whose dominion—the largest native state in India—it originally formed part.

Madras Presidency

This large province, which includes the Carnatic, annexed in 1801, is situated on the south-east coast and forms the apex of the Indian peninsula. It has an area of 142,300 square miles, and a population of 43,158,985, exclusive of the attached native states. Although it has a coast line 1,730 miles in length there is no first-class natural anchorage, but at Madras, the capital, an extensive artificial harbour has been constructed.

This portion of India was the principal *theatre de guerre* of England's struggle with the French, and although British arms were victorious France still holds several small trading settlements, the most important of which is Pondicherry, situated about 90 miles south of Madras city. This province, which was of small extent before the addition of the Carnatic in 1801, remained the most important part of British India until Clive's victories raised Bengal to the premier place among the great presidencies.

Madras is not remarkable for its picturesqueness, but, being situated in the tropical regions of Southern India, enjoys a climate of perennial summer. The country gradually rises from the flat, jungle-covered coast lands to the low summits of the Eastern Ghats. Although the climate is hot and somewhat damp the rainfall is by no means abnormal, owing to this coast receiving only the stored water of the north-east monsoon, which, having comparatively little open sea to traverse, is unable to obtain the enormous supply of moisture stored in the clouds of the south-west monsoon, which traverses wide stretches of ocean before striking the rugged slopes of the Western Ghats on the opposite coast.

The rain, which is dropped by the departing monsoon all over the south-eastern portion of the peninsula during November and December, is especially heavy in the

the districts around Madras City. This gives to this portion of the Carnatic two seasons, one at the beginning and the other at the end of the monsoon; owing to the heat, however, only tropical crops can be cultivated. Of the climate of Madras it has been said that "January differs from July only in degrees of oppressiveness."

The east coast of the Madras Presidency is known geologically as the crystalline area of the peninsula, and is distinguished by the large numbers of irrigation tanks. The uneven surface of the country and its rock formation facilitate the impounding of water, and every valley contains a chain of tanks—one above the other—constructed by throwing embankments across the bottom. Most of them are of small size and irrigate less than 100 acres; but some are imposing sheets of water, resembling large natural lakes in the irregularity of their contour and in their effect upon the scenery. Certain of these large reservoirs are known to be over 1,000 years old, and the system of tank irrigation has undoubtedly come down from a very early period of native rule. When the land is in the hands of cultivators holding directly under the State, the repair of the village tanks is undertaken by the Government. In the Madras Presidency alone 40,000 tanks are so maintained. Where the ownership of the land is vested in proprietors intervening between the State and the cultivators, the tanks have very generally been neglected and cultivation has suffered. Tank irrigation is used for rice, and to a less extent for sugar-cane. It assures a regularity of supply without which, even in tracts of heavy rainfall, the better kinds of transplanted rice cannot be cultivated, and with its assistance two, and sometimes three crops of rice are grown on the same land within the year.*

In Madras, fully a quarter of the cultivated area is under some kind of irrigation system. The principal crops are rice, millet, cotton, indigo, oilseeds, tobacco, tea and various spices. Manganese ore is practically the only mineral which is being produced and exported.

The population of the Madras Presidency is, like the country itself, very heterogeneous in character. The two chief languages are Tamil and Telugu. In the north Telugu is

* *Vide* Sir J. Bampfylde Fuller, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.



Photo, J. P. Mills

A NATIVE GRAVE IN THE ANGAMI NAGA COUNTRY

largely spoken, then come the Tamil-speaking peoples who give place to Kanarese and those of the Malayan dialect in the south-western districts. All of these are of the Dravidian race and Hindu religion. The Mohammedans in Madras are comparatively few, amounting to only a small percentage of the total population; and the Aryan blood, so strong in parts of the north, has dwindled down to an almost unobservable quantity in Southern India.

MADRAS CITY.

The capital of this old-established presidency owes its birth to Fort St. George, founded during the early part of the seventeenth century by a zealous member of the East India Company. The population now numbers about 539,328. The city, which consists of a level mass of red and white buildings intersected by broad avenues of trees and surrounded by green and luxuriant tropical foliage, stands on the low-lying sea shore, almost in front of which are the giant breakwaters encircling the artificial harbour. A small river wanders through the centre of the city, which is divided into two portions.

When the sun is high in the heavens and its fierce rays seem to have drawn the life-blood from all around, Madras and its jungle-covered shores appear arid and scorched. The rickshaw boys, drawing their light vehicles, trot in the shade of the tree-bordered roads, shining with perspiration yet looking the picture of contentment, and even the green foliage looks sleepy and listless. As the sun sinks the heat considerably decreases, and life and energy return on the wings of the breeze which rolls the small foam-capped breakers on the sandy shore of Madras. Twilight is of short duration in Southern India. Between the lighting of a cigar and the fall of the first ash darkness has closed over the world. Lights twinkle in the streets and fire-flies flit about like tiny shooting stars. When the moon rises—a large, mellow, tropical moon, which seems to infuse an almost sunlike measure of warmth and life—the dark, jungle-covered land is thrown into striking contrast with the silver expanse of the *White Town*, or European cantonment, and the *Black Town*, or native quarters.



AO NAGA GIRL Photo, J. P. Mills

the sea, and the tall palms, ghostly in their loneliness, are silhouetted against the brightening sky.

The Madras are darker skinned than their more nothern brethren ; and the men wear their glossy black hair in a large knot at the back of their heads, which gives them a decidedly feminine appearance. Here, as in almost every city in India, although Hinduism is the predominant religion, there are many followers of the Prophet, who take a keen interest in the affairs of Turkey, Egypt, Persia, Afghanistan, and even Morocco. This brings to mind one of the ever-present

The Madras Government has its summer headquarters at Ootacamund in the lofty (8,000 ft.) Nilgiris. Here the climate is more temperate than tropical, as it is on the surrounding lowlands, and the open grassy downs of these western hills are often obscured by sea-mists in the summer rainy season, and occasionally whitened by hoar frost in the winter.

Assam

This little northern frontier province, which has an area of only 53,015 square



AO NAGA VILLAGE

Photo, J. P. Mills

difficulties which beset British administration in the East. A victory or defeat of British arms or policy in any portion of the Mohamadan world is quickly known and strongly commented upon by the millions of "true believers" in our Indian Empire.

In the Madras Presidency there are over 1,000,000 native Christians, mostly of the Roman Catholic faith. It is of interest to note here that such has been the success of the Christian churches that in the Indian Empire there are to-day over 3,800,000 native Christians in addition to the very large number of Eurasians whose mixed white and coloured parentage has imbued them with a natural preference for European beliefs.

miles and a population of about 8,516,230, includes the valleys of the Brahmaputra and Surma Rivers, and the numerous ranges of low hills which cross the plain between these rivers. It forms the frontier with Tibet on the north, and the protected Shan States (under the Government of Burma) border the Siamese kingdom. On its southern frontier lies the little native state of Hill Tipperah, and on its eastern border the native state of Manipur. The latter is attached to the chief Commissionership of Assam, but the former comes within the jurisdiction of the Governor of Bengal.

The lofty Assam hills, which have an average height of about 4,000 ft. catch the



AO NAGA FAMILY
In dancing dress

clouds which drift over the low-lying plains of Bengal from the sea, and cause them to drop their sea-borrowed moisture, giving to this province the heaviest rainfall in the world. The average amount in the wettest parts is 450 in. in the year, but as much as 50 ft. have been recorded. The largest portion of the country only receives some 50-100 in., which is, however, quite abnormal for India, and effectually secures this portion of the Empire from the disastrous and widespread droughts, followed by famines, which are the scourge of so many parts, especially in the Deccan.

Assam possesses dense jungles of grass, in which live two kinds of one-horned rhinoceros; and the peculiarly dense, *damp forests* are inhabited by a species of monkey known from its call as the *hoolak*. In structure this monkey is the nearest approach to the human being. The air of these jungles is extremely moist and enervating and the gloom oppressive in the extreme; but they are the home of many varieties of birds and reptiles.

Petroleum has been discovered in many parts of Assam, and in the adjoining province of Burma, where over 300,000,000 gallons are annually produced. Coal is also mined in the eastern extremity of the Assam Valley, where there is a seam 80 ft. thick.

Weaving is carried on in many native homes in this province. The loom used is a portable one, fixed at one end to the ground and at the other secured to the waist band of the operator. The striped cotton fabrics made are often quite artistic. The chief products are, however, rice, tea, sugar, jute, tobacco and oilseeds. It is to the tea-planting industry which Assam looks for its present and future prosperity.

The tea tree grows wild on the hills that occupy the frontier between Assam, Burma and China, and it was in ignorance of this fact that seventy years ago experiments were initiated by the State for the introduction of the Chinese plant into India. Plantations were established at various points along the outer Himalayas; they produced tea of good quality but only yielded heavily on the eastern ranges—in Sikkim, near the hill-station of Darjeeling, where a moist climate is perennially maintained by sea-winds from



KONYAK NAGA BOYS

Photos, J. P. Mills

In this part of North-Eastern India it is the custom for boys to have narrow waists and aprons

the Bay of Bengal. On the discovery of the indigenous Indian plant, its seed—and seed obtained by hybridising it with the Chinese plant—was substituted with great advantage for Chinese seed. Plantations opened in the Duárs at the foot of the Sikkim Himalayas proved that the tea plant would flourish on the Indian plains; its leaves might not possess the flavour which they developed at a higher altitude, but, on

The population of this province is chiefly made up of Mohammedans (55 per cent.) and Hindus (40 per cent.). In the Surma Valley, which is as densely populated as the plains of Bengal, the language is Bengali; but in the Brahmaputra Valley, which is very sparsely populated and contains wide areas of uncultivated land, the language is Assamese, which is, however, much like the Bengali tongue.



KONYAK NAGA WOMEN

Photo, J. P. Mills

the other hand, its yield was considerably heavier. But it is in the two valleys of Assam that tea-gardens have reached their most striking development. Rows of flat topped tea bushes here cover the face of the country, and the production of tea has dwarfed into insignificance all other branches of agricultural industry.* The total export of Indian tea averages in annual value 19 millions sterling.

The administration of Assam has also political jurisdiction over the turbulent hill tribes in the wild barren country of the Tibetan frontier and in the areas once under Chinese influence. These tribes are all of Tibeto-Burman origin, but are divided by differences of dialect.

The headquarters of the Government are at the little hill town of Shillong, which is surrounded by many of the finest tea planta-

* Sir J. Bampfylde Fuller, K.C.S.I., C.I.E.

tions in this portion of India. The only other towns of any importance are Gauhati and Sylhet.

Burma

This is the largest province of the Indian Empire, having an area of 233,700 square miles. The population is, however, only 14,382,192. It forms the frontier with China, French Indo-China, and Siam, on the east, and the Province of Assam in the north. Strategically this province, which is often termed *Further India*, is of considerable

ful fleets constantly in home waters. In a similar way a European Power in Upper Burma, which borders the Indian province of Assam and the Feudatory State of Manipur, would have compelled the stationing of considerable British and Indian military forces on the eastern land-frontier of the Empire; and should, by any possible—and not improbable—combination of circumstances, war have occurred with another European Power on the north-west frontier, the maintenance of large fleets and armies on the eastern borders would have been a dangerous source of weakness; whereas the garrisons now in



SANGTAM NAGA GIRLS

Photo, J. P. Mills

importance. It forms the east and north-east coasts of the Bay of Bengal, and completes the semi-circle of British territory which encloses this great ocean highway to India. It was not conquered and annexed because of any premeditated plan of Imperial extension, but rather as a safeguard to India proper. Had a foreign Power secured a stronghold on the coast of Lower Burma, the Indian Government would have been compelled to maintain a large fleet of warships constantly in the Bay of Bengal; in the same manner as the position of foreign Powers on the opposite coasts of the English Channel and North Sea makes it absolutely necessary for the United Kingdom to maintain power-

Burma barely amount to 3,000 British and 6,000 native troops and military police, and even these are maintained by the Supreme Government out of the Burmese contribution to the Imperial Indian Exchequer.

A large portion of Lower Burma, which includes the coastal territories of Arakan, Tenasserim and Pegu, is composed of the low-lying rice fields of the Delta of the Irrawaddy, but the country surrounding the upper valley of this river, above Prome, is hilly, and covered with forests of teak and bamboo. In the north-east lies the mountainous country of the Shan States, which form the frontier with China. In these distant lands wheat is being successfully



THE SHWÈ DAGON PAGODA, RANGOON, BURMA *Photo, H. J. Shepstone*

cultivated, but the staple export is teak and other timber, which is floated down the rivers from the forests that cover the Shan hills. Upper Burma is rich in minerals and precious stones, including rubies, jade, gold, silver and lead. Much of the fertile coastal region is devoted to the cultivation of rice,

The export of oil averages in value about £500,000 a year.

A very considerable portion of "picturesque Burma"—as it is often styled on account of its thousands of pagodas, its interesting bazaars (especially at Mandalay, the northern capital, and Rangoon, the sea-

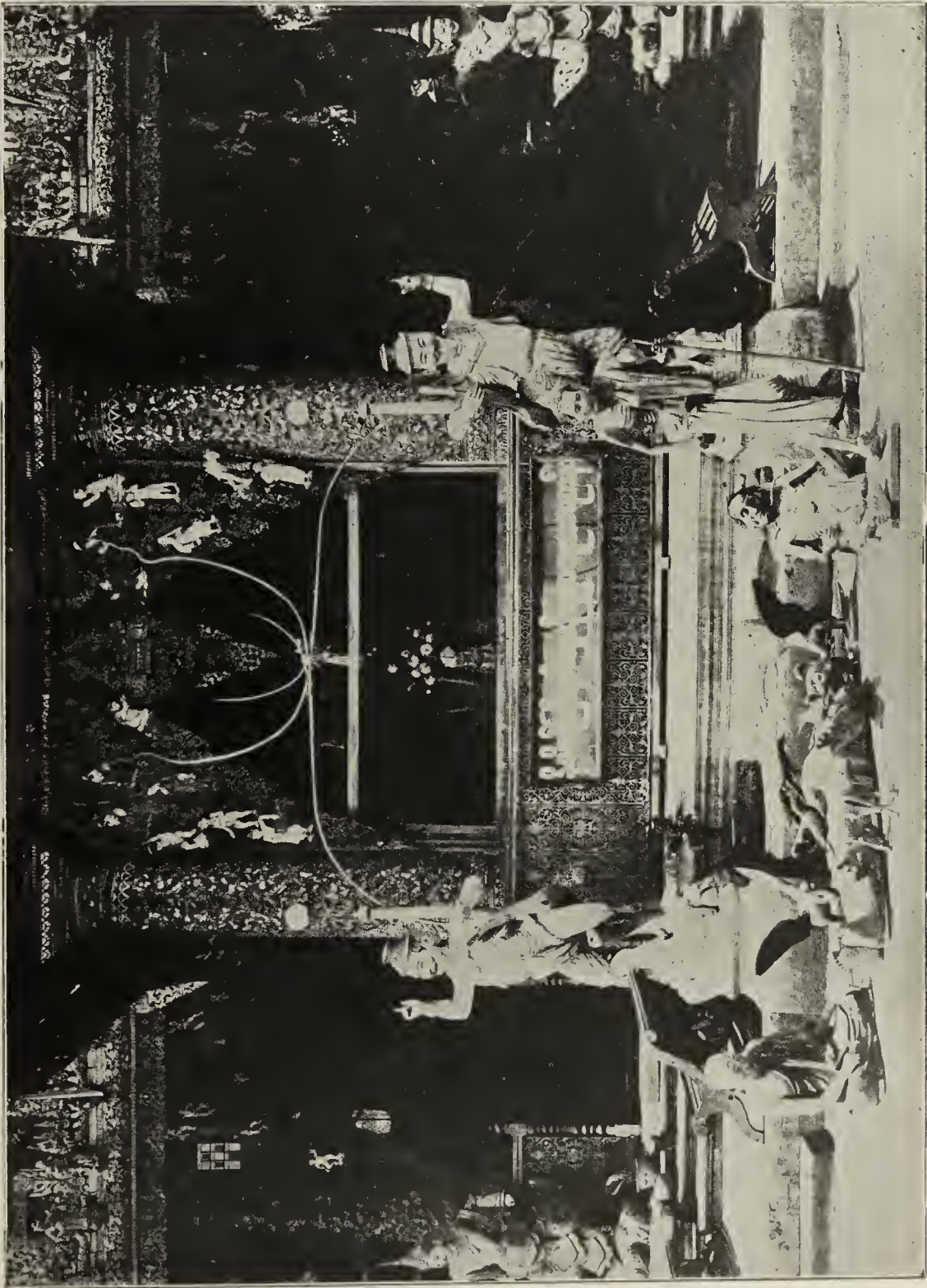


Photo, H. J. Shepstone

WORSHIPPING BEFORE AN IDOL, BURMA

which forms the staple food of the Burmese ; but the narrow southern province of Tenasserim, which runs down the east coast of the Bay of Bengal towards the Malay Peninsula, contains valuable tin and iron mines. Arakan and Pegu, as well as the valley of the lower Irrawaddy, possess valuable petroleum wells.

coast capital) its gaily dressed inhabitants of Indo-Chinese stock, and the beauties of its tropical forests—is, however, covered with peculiarly dense jungle, in which the climate is damp and malarious. On the Assam frontier, north-east from Chittagong, are the Blue Mountains, which rise several thousand



A SHRINE ON THE PLATFORM OF THE SHWE DAGON PAGODA
 The carved figures in front depict (1) Old Age, (2) Sickness, (3) Death, and (4) Piety

feet, and on the lower slopes of which tea is largely grown. Forming a portion of this frontier with continental India is the small Feudatory native state of Manipur.

Burma is fortunate in possessing two extensive river systems, the principal being the Irrawaddy, which is navigable for some 900

though shallow steam, which finds its way into the State of Manipur, and forms the highway to Assam. The main stream of the second river-system is the Salween, which joins the sea near Martaban, and forms a large portion of the Burmese frontier with Siam and China. Numbers of boats laden



Photo, H. J. Shepstone

BUDDHIST PRIESTS, BURMA

miles from Rangoon to a point above Bhamo—from whence it was proposed to construct a railway line across the mountains into the populous and rich Chinese province of Yunnan, which project, however, was given up on account of its great cost. The Irrawaddy has several tributaries, the most important being the Chindwin, a broad,

with the produce of the East and West may be seen on these waterways, which afford a cheap means of communication between Lower and Upper Burma.

Financially Burma is a source of strength to India and the whole British Empire. It costs nothing to maintain, and beyond the contribution which it makes to the Indian

Exchequer, towards the cost of central government, provincial expenditure, the upkeep of troops, and to defray its share in the expenses of the Royal Navy, it offers a career to hundreds of Britishers in the Government Services, in professions, in commerce, and on the plantations, estates, oil-fields, mines, railways and irrigation canals. These inestimable benefits which Burma, and every colony confer on the other portions of the Empire, especially the over-populated British Isles, are, however, of quite secondary importance compared with the British manufactured goods which it absorbs, and by so doing gives employment to thousands of mechanics and operatives in the industrial centres of Great Britain. Of the average total value of foreign imports into Burma, which amounts to about 1,000 lakhs of rupees per annum, over 60 per cent. comes from the United Kingdom. In addition to these advantages there are the financial benefits accruing from the enormous amount of capital invested in Burmese undertakings, many of which yield a good profit to investors in all parts of the Empire, and are protected by the British Flag.

During recent years there has been a suggestion that Burma should be separated politically from India and governed as an independent unit of the Empire. In this connection it should be remembered that Burma is more akin to Malaya than it is to India.

RANGOON.

The capital of Burma, with its palms and pagodas, its sunsets, its gaily-clad people of every Asiatic race, its broad river—an offspring of the great Irrawaddy—its green and luxuriant tropical vegetation, and the blending of colours, both gorgeous and subdued, will appeal as strongly to the eye of the artist as will the busy wharves and mills and the hum of human life to the merchant and man of affairs. It is a city of about 366,387 inhabitants, which has rapidly increased in industry and commerce during quite recent years.

The Shwè Dagon Pagoda, which rears its gilded spire skywards from amid green trees and the smaller spires of surrounding shrines, wherein are Buddhas of brass and marble, is not handsome like the Taj Mahal—which,

however, loses much artistic beauty by its exactitude and model-like appearance—but is quaint, and glitters when the fierce sun of tropical Burma flashes its bright rays on the golden spire. Around the base of this great pagoda, and forming part of it, are several large shrines, besides countless smaller ones of all ages. The interiors of many are dim with the smoke of hundreds of lighted candles which surround the figures of Gautama (see *Benares*). In this weird light saffron-robed priests move amid the brightly dressed kneeling figures paying homage at the shrine. Above and below these images of Buddha are pious offerings, varying from a bowl of rice or a few custard apples to the dark tresses of some love-sick little Burmese maiden. To the Shwè Dagon, and its numerous shrines, come yearly thousands of Buddhist pilgrims from all parts of Burma, Siam, and Ceylon, for it is the oldest and most sacred pagoda—the “Mecca” of the pure Buddhist faith as practised in these countries.

This wonderful edifice, which towers high above Rangoon, stands on the “Temple Platform,” which is approached from the roadway by a flight of steps bordered by stalls and shops displaying all the wares peculiar to Eastern bazaars; and in the shadow of this sacred temple are the graves of the few British soldiers and sailors who were killed in the storming of the Great Pagoda over half-a-century ago.

Rangoon is at heart both pagan and poetical, for the Burmese are lovers of the arts and gods. They are merry, yet withal very religious. The diminutive pale-faced, maiden of this land of sunshine, unlike her Mohammedan sister, hides not her face from the world, but walks abroad, prettily dressed in a white jacket, her head dressed with flowers, her legs, and sometimes her whole body, swathed in bright-coloured silks; laughing, talking, smoking the inevitable Burmese cheroot, and frequently flirting with her male friends. A pleasing contrast after the cities of India and especially the Near and Middle East, where so many who are not old and toil-worn are shrouded in mystery; the dark eyes above the veil being all that man is permitted to gaze upon.

The Burman is a happy, laughter-loving fellow, who dislikes nothing so much as work, and enjoys nothing so much as making

love, smoking, chewing betel-nut, and watching a *Pwe*, or native song-and-dance. Hating discipline and drill, these men are useless as soldiers, but the hill tribes of Upper Burma are enlisted in the Military Police forces and have, on several occasions, acquitted themselves remarkably well.

towns by the more enterprising races of India and China.

In the native city, joss-houses, Hindu temples, mosques and pagodas are scattered among the medley of bazaars, low-roofed houses and mat-huts. The Strand road, facing the river, is one of the most important



BURMESE GIRL
Smoking a large cigar

Photo, H. J. Shepstone

In Rangoon one sees nearly as many half-naked Madrasis, seamen from the Andaman and Laccadive Islands, Bengalis, Parsi merchants, Chinese shopkeepers, Sikh policemen, and Indian ayahs, as one does Burmese, whose indolent, pleasure-loving ways are causing them to be driven out of their own

European thoroughfares, and the Dalhousie Park is a favourite and pretty place on the outskirts; but new streets are constantly being laid out. In the timber yards, on the banks of the river, down which the teak logs from the forests of Upper Burma are floated to the coast, an excellent idea is obtained of



CHINLON—THE NATIONAL GAME OF BURMA

This illustration shows Maung Law Paw, the famous Burmese Juggler, performing a clever catch in this curious game



SPECIALLY DRAWN FOR THE ENCYCLOPEDIA OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE

BY: A. H. LEE

the magnitude of this industry. The average annual export of teak from Burma amounts to about 300,000 tons. Elephants draw the enormous logs to the saw mills, and it is an interesting sight to watch these sagacious animals at work lifting the huge trees with their trunks and placing them, feather-like, on the ground. The green "paddy" fields,

Burma is under this crop, but in Upper Burma less rice is grown as the rainfall is insufficient, and the fields need irrigation. Rubber is largely cultivated, and now forms an important article of export ; cotton is also produced, and Burma has long been famous for its ruby mines. Gold, silver, jade, tin, copper, coal and petroleum are also being



Photo, H. J. Shepstone

NATIVE CRAFT ON THE IRRAWADDY

which cover so much of the country around Rangoon, supply the mills in the city with the raw material for cleaning, grinding and packing for export. Burma supplies India with large quantities of rice and other food-stuffs, which prove of inestimable benefit during the famines, brought on by drought, so common in many parts of the peninsula.

The staple food of Burma is rice. About four-fifths of the cultivated area of Lower

extensively worked. There are, in addition, the native industries, such as silk weaving, mostly carried on by Burmese girls ; oil springs and refineries in various districts (European and native labour) ; wood carving and lacquer work ; silver-beating, ivory-carving, and the cutting and polishing of rubies and sapphires.

The road to Mandalay—and even to the Chinese frontier—has for many years been a



THE FORT AT MANDALAY



ARAKAN PAGODA, MANDALAY
Pilgrims feeding the Sacred Turtles

Photo, H. J. Shepstone

metal track 386 miles in length, over which rattle the trains of the Burma railway. Both the Lower and Upper divisions of this great province are now well served with lines, and steam navigation services ply on the waterways which intersect the country. The two main branches of this wonderful fluvial system are the Irrawaddy, with its tributary the Chindwin, and the Salween, all of which are navigable for great distances from their mouths.

The road to Mandalay is such an old theme for both poetry and prose that it would be superfluous to do more than mention here that the journey occupies about twenty hours and the view from the carriage windows is an endless succession of green fields and jungles, from which rise up on all sides the pinnacles of innumerable pagodas, and the pointed thatched roofs of huts raised above the flood-line on poles.

MANDALAY.

Although an important native city of about 156,320 inhabitants, and the administrative headquarters of Upper Burma, it is, with the exception of some of its pagodas, comparatively modern, having been chosen by King Min, father of Theebaw, as the chief town of the Burmese kingdom in succession to the old capitals, Ava and Amarapura. The city derives its name from its situation at the base of Mandalay Hill, a spur of the Eastern Range, crowned by a modern pagoda reached by hundreds of steps. This pagoda, like many in Burma, is illuminated at night by festoons of electric lamps.

The erstwhile Royal City, now known as Fort Dufferin, which is separated from the masses of native houses—mingled with the more solid buildings of European design—which form Mandalay proper, is a gigantic compound, exactly square, surrounded by walls with turreted watch-towers and pinnacled porticos at intervals, and enclosed by a moat several hundred feet broad. Each side of this vast enclosure is over a mile in length, and the walls are in places about 40 ft. high. Much of the interior is occupied by a fine park, but it also contains—besides the many buildings composing the palace, which, since Lord Curzon's visit some years ago, has been carefully preserved for official receptions—the Government buildings, the

barracks, the English Church, and the residences of officials and many of the European community. Fort Dufferin is really the "Government City" of Upper Burma.

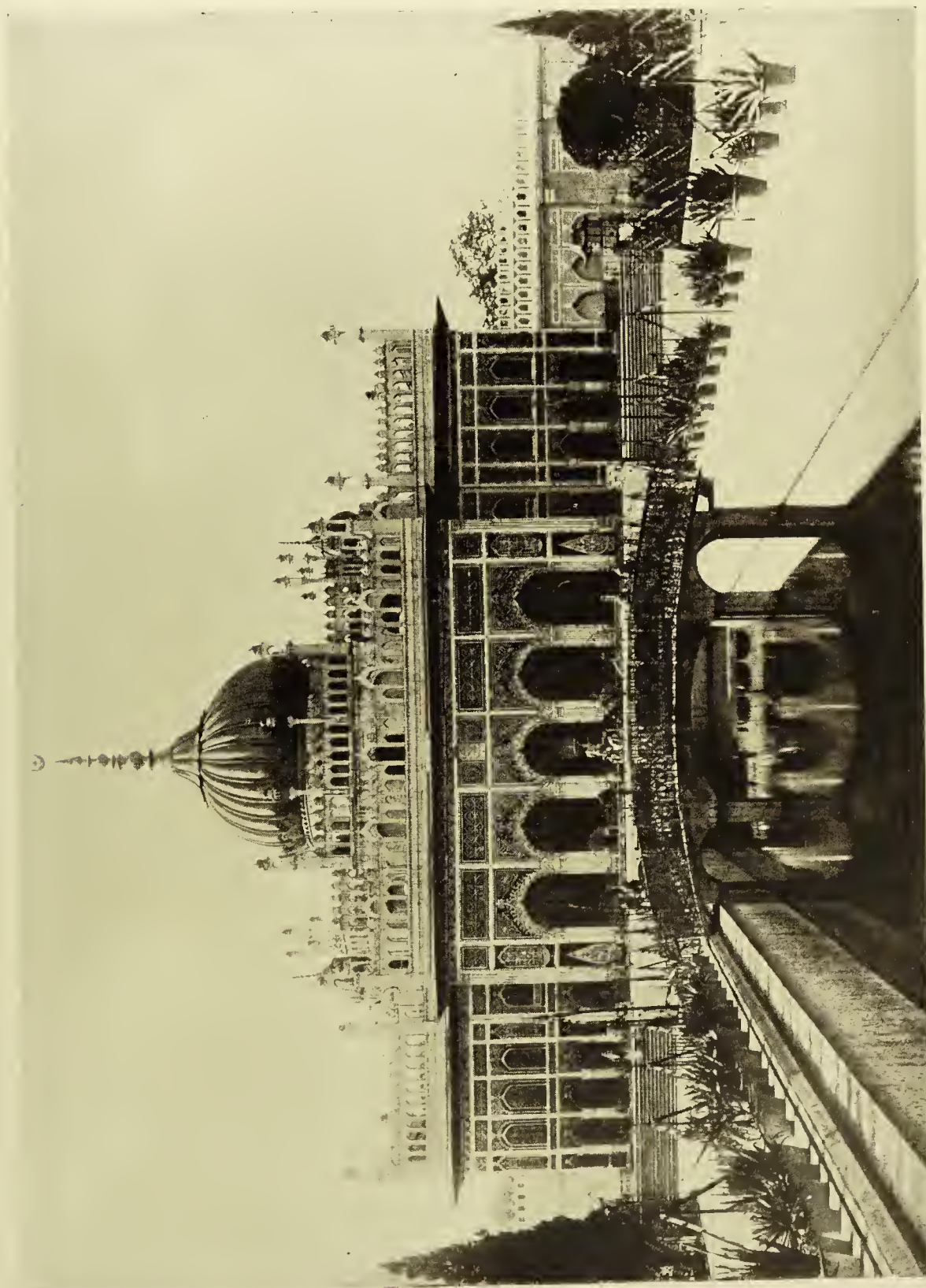
Standing in the centre of this walled-island is the palace of the last two kings of Burma (Min and Theebaw). The central building, which contains the throne rooms and reception halls, decorated with pillars of teak lacquered and frescoed, is surrounded by many smaller out-buildings, with pinnacled roofs, embellished both inside and out with coloured windows, gilt work, mirrors, and carvings. The tapering spires of this palace give it a light, fanciful aspect, although the interior is somewhat dilapidated, but the Durbar Hall and the Lion Throne Room still retain much of their original beauty. In many of the public rooms is a golden *daïs* supported by lions, above which, executed with gold leaf and lacquer, is the emblem of the rising sun.

To attempt to describe Burmese, Siamese, or Chinese buildings is to court dismal failure, for no words can convey a proper idea of these many-spired, turreted, balconied, frescoed, lacquered, painted and carved buildings of delicate design, which generally have the appearance of enlarged fret-work models gilded and painted in the most extravagant colours. Such a building is the Queen's Monastery, the Arakan Pagoda, with its lake in which doze many sleek and *sacred* turtles—things to be spoken of with awe and reverence in Mandalay.

At the foot of the mountains, about 1½ miles beyond Mandalay, is the famous "City of the 450 Pagodas," a forest of glittering white spires surrounding a fane of gold. Each pagoda contains a Buddhist inscription and is the work of some pious Burman. This marvellous city of shrines stands on a tree-covered plain—a scintillating mass of white amid a sea of green.

The origin of the many pagodas seen in all stages of erection—and dilapidation—in Burma is to be found in the religious maxim that there is no merit in restoring an old pagoda, spiritual reward coming only to those who build new ones.

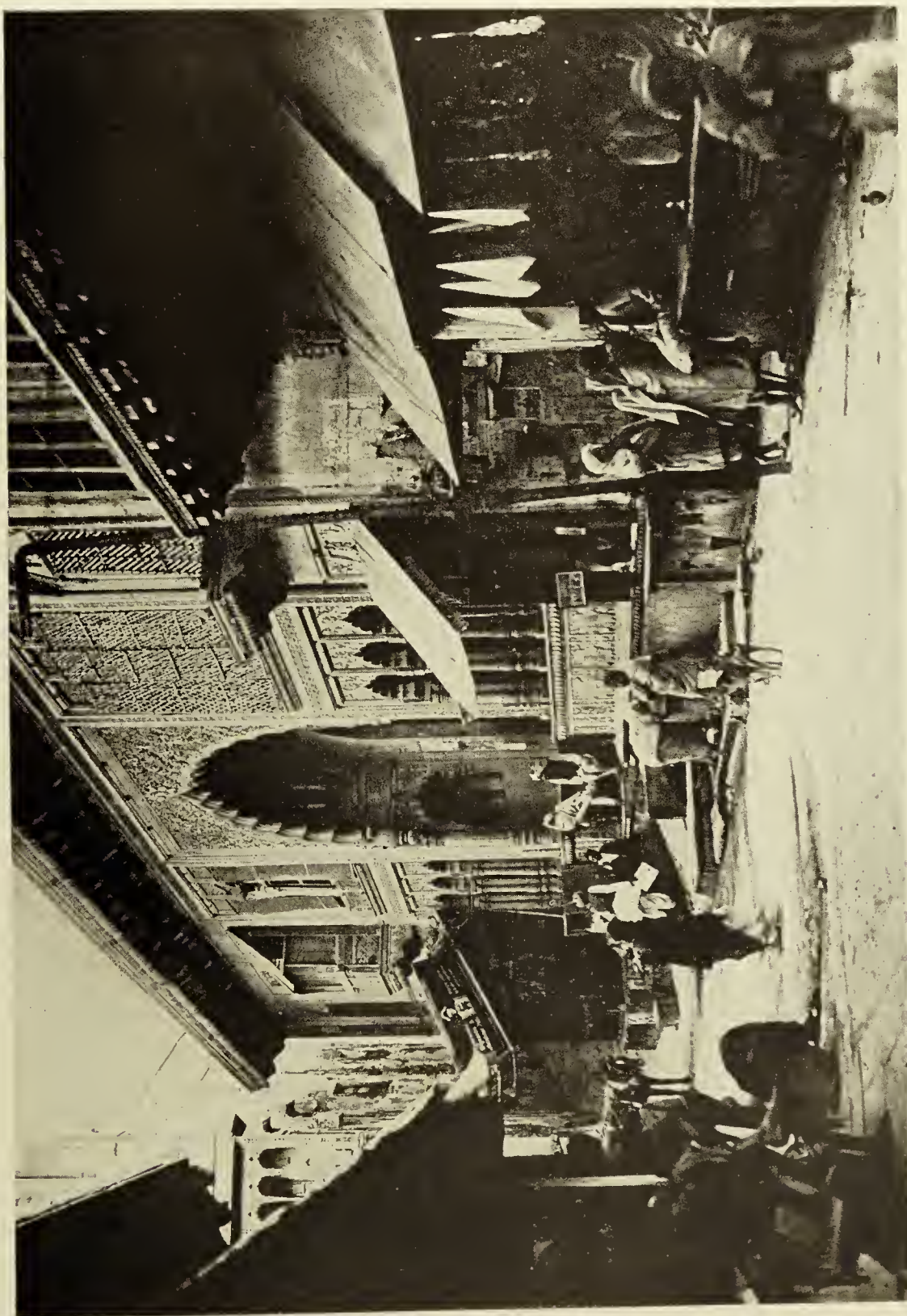
During the intensely hot Burmese summer the Government moves its headquarters to Maymyo in the hills behind Mandalay. Here the cool breezes temper the tropical heat, the rainfall is not so great, and the morning



THE PALACE OF LIGHTS, LUCKNOW



DALHOUSIE SQUARE AND TANK, CALCUTTA



KRISHNA TEMPLE AT MUTTRA



PALACE OF THE GAEKWAR OF BARODA
One of the finest examples of Indo-Saracenic style of architecture in India



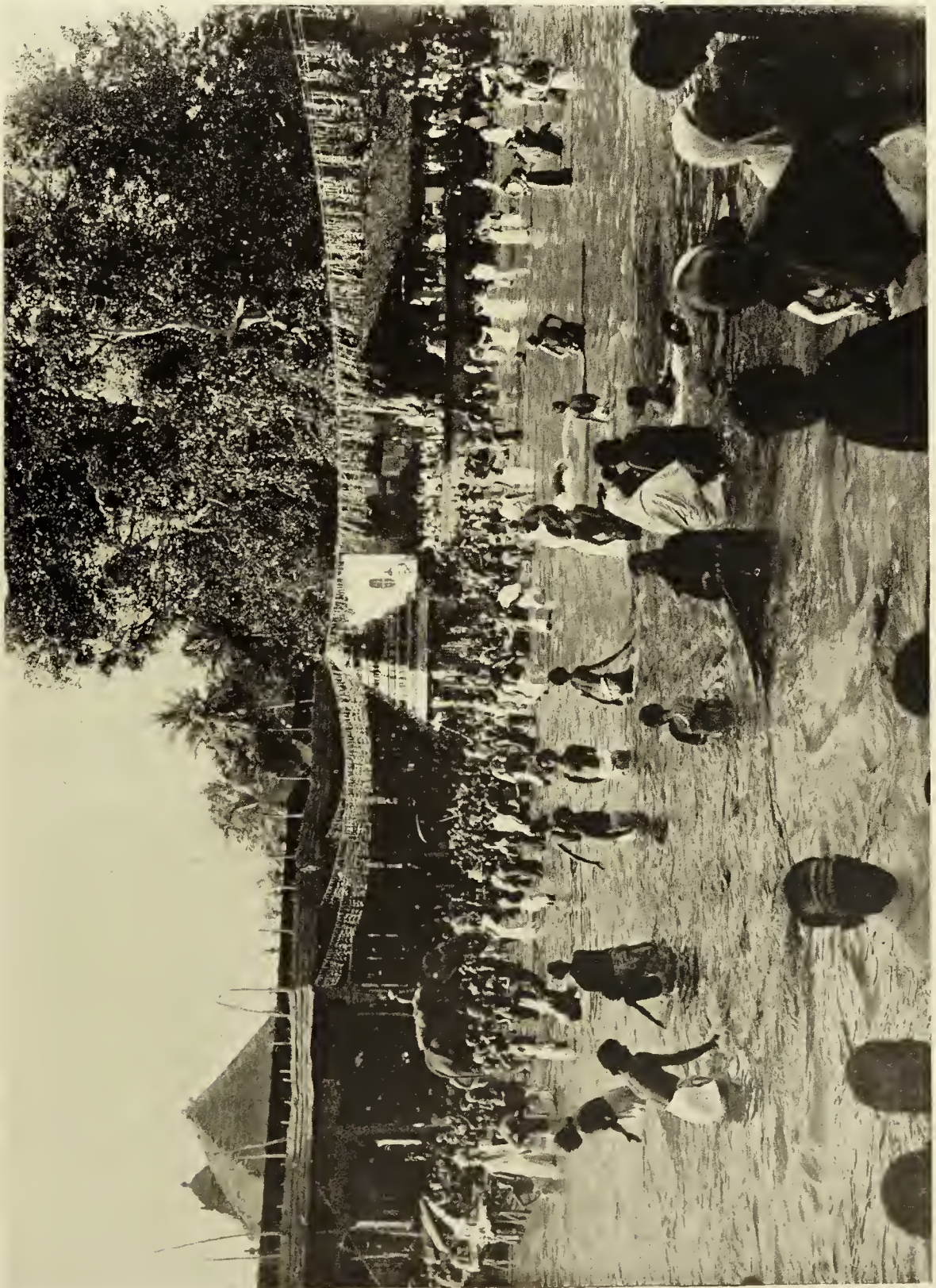
CALCUTTA, HOWRAH BRIDGE AND STATION ACROSS THE HOOGHLY RIVER

Photo, C. P. Rly.

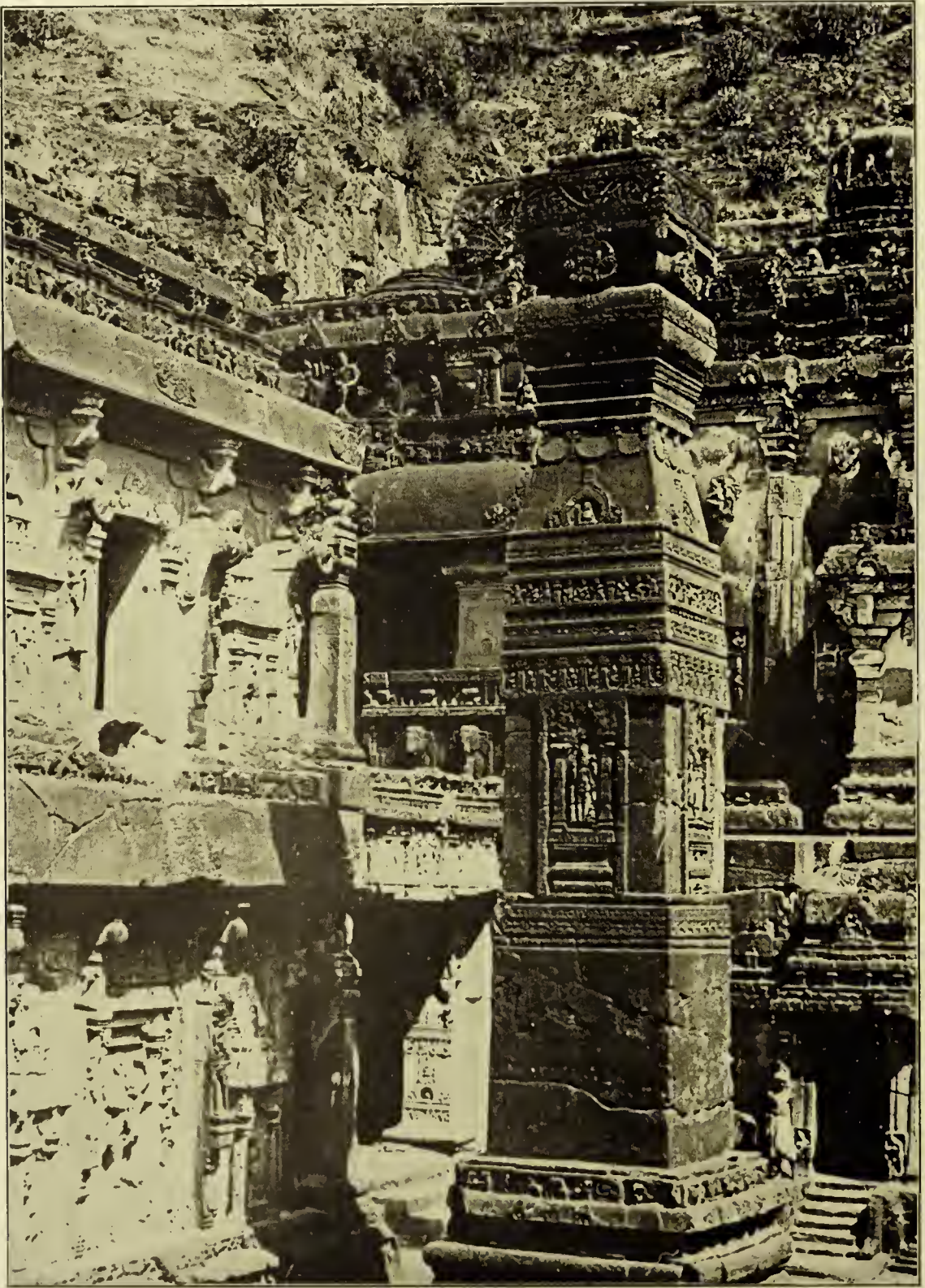


Photo, C.P. Rly.

EAST AND WEST GATES—TAJ MAHAL



BATHING GHAT, MAYAVARAM, SOUTHERN INDIA



ONE OF THE WORLD'S MARVELS

Photo, Underwood

The beautiful Dravidian Temple cut in the solid rock at Ellora, India

mists are less harmful than in the jungle lands of the lower Irrawaddy valley.

Portions of the railway, which crosses this range on its way from Mandalay to the Chinese frontier, are extremely difficult. The zigzags up to Maymyo, which is situated on a lofty plateau; the steel bridge which spans the Gokteik Gorge, many miles further up the line, and other sections, are marvellous examples of constructional ability in a remote corner of the Empire many hundreds of miles from a sea-coast base.

The Burmo-Chinese border country, inhabited by Kachins, Karens, Shans, and other Indo-Chinese and Indo-Siamese tribes, possesses a much more healthy climate than the lowlands of the coast. The scenery is very fine in parts, the hills and gorges being covered with forests of teak.

The Burma railway lines terminate at Myithina, on the Irrawaddy, and Kunlon Ferry, on the Salween. The Irrawaddy steamboats reach Bhamo. At these points, as at Ali Masjid and Landi Kotal (Khyber Pass), Quetta and Chaman (Khoyak Pass), and in Chitral and Kashmir, Indian frontier officers and native military police keep ward and watch on the *Ultima Thule* of the British Indian Empire.

Dependencies of British India

ADEN.

The most important of these is ADEN, which is situated on the southern coast of Arabia, and, together with the Island of Perim, at the entrance to the Red Sea, has an area of 80 square miles and a population of about 56,500. Aden was occupied by the British in 1839, and, being situated on the Suez Canal and Red Sea route to India, has a large maritime trade. The sea-borne trade passing through Aden and Perim has an average value of about 10 millions sterling a year. Its position also causes it to be of great strategic importance, as it is the only fortified base on the main line of Empire from Egypt to India, and it has become a naval coaling and oiling station of great value; but the climate of both Aden and the Island of Perim is very enervating, and the heat is great during most of the year.

The principal sights of this place are the Crater and the marvellous Tawela Tanks, ancient Persian structures occupying the

mouth of a narrow ravine. Then there is the military cantonment, the Arab village of Sheikh Othman, and the Parsee burial ground over which vultures are continually hovering.

The ISLAND OF SOKOTRA, off Cape Guardafui, has an area of 1,400 square miles and an Arab pastoral population of about 13,000. It may be termed a second class protectorate; since 1886 the local Sheik has received a small subsidy from the British Government, pledging in return not to treat in any way with any other foreign Power, or cede any portion of the island.

With the tribes of the Aden Hinterland the Indian Government has treaty relations; and a joint British and Turkish Commission (1904) fixed the boundary of this sphere from Sheik Sayad to the River Bana. The Kuria Muria Islands in the Persian Gulf are also under British-Indian suzerainty. (For MESOPOTAMIA, see *Mandatory Territories*.)

ANDAMAN, NICOBAR AND LACCADIVE ISLANDS.

These islands, which have a total area of 3,143 square miles and a population of 27,086, are situated in the eastern portion of the Bay of Bengal. The former are divided into two groups, known as the Great and Little Andamans. These islands have been used, since 1858, as an Indian Penal Settlement, and usually contained from 10,000 to 15,000 convicts (natives). In 1921 it was, however, decided to abolish this penal establishment. Timber is obtained from the thick jungles, which cover a large area; and Indian corn, manioc, rice, tea, artichokes, Siberian coffee and cocoa, are cultivated. PORT BLAIR, on South Andaman Island, has a fine harbour, and is the headquarters of the administration.

The Nicobar Islands are situated to the south of the Andamans, off the entrance to the Malacca Strait, and were occupied by the British in 1869. The chief Island is Car Nicobar, the northernmost of the group, which consists of about nineteen, only a few of which are, however, inhabited. Great Nicobar, in the extreme south, is the largest and most fertile. The climate of all these islands, as well as that of the Andamans, is essentially tropical, and the vegetation luxuriant. Coco-nuts are the chief export.

The Laccadive Islands, fourteen in number, only nine of which are inhabited, lie about 200 miles off the Malabar coast of the Madras Presidency, to which they are attached for administrative purposes. The climate is essentially tropical, but they produce very little for export, and have a population of only 11,000.

The Native States

An important part of the Indian Empire consists of the Feudatory States, which cover an area of about 709,583 square miles with a population of approximately 72,000,000. The relations of these states to the Supreme Government of India have already been given. Although they number as many as 680, only a few are of large size and importance, many consisting of single villages, whose Chief is little more than a local magistrate. The principal native states, with their areas, populations and revenues, are as follows :—

MOHAMMEDAN STATES.

State.	Area. Sq. m.	Population. Approx.	Revenue. Approx.
Hyderabad	82,698	13,000,000	4,100,000
Kelat	54,712	310,000	81,000
Bhawalpur	15,000	800,000	349,000
Bhopal	6,889	710,000	420,000
Khairpur	6,050	223,788	170,000
Junagarh	3,284	470,000	416,000
Palanpur	1,800	240,000	68,000
Rampur	899	531,217	350,800

MAHRATTA STATES.

Baroda	8,099	2,200,000	1,380,000
Gwalior	25,041	3,260,000	1,392,000
Indore	9,500	1,208,000	720,000
Kolhapur	2,855	883,441	502,000

SIKH STATES.

Patiala	5,920	1,502,000	709,000
Jind	1,259	316,421	176,000
Kapurthala	630	296,481	263,000
Nabha	928	271,000	159,000

JAT STATES.

Bhartpur	1,982	558,785	265,000
Dholpur	1,155	263,188	111,400

RAJPUT STATES OF RAJPUTANA.

Udaipur(orMewar)	12,691	1,390,000	348,620
Jaipur	15,579	2,636,649	580,000
Jodhpur or Marwar)	34,963	2,057,553	792,000
Alwar	3,141	791,688	341,000
Bikanir	23,311	700,983	526,000
Kotah	5,684	599,891	287,000

RAJPUT STATES OF KATHIAWAR.

Idar	1,900	210,000	89,000
Cutch	7,616	513,429	223,000
Gondal	1,024	174,200	298,000
Nawanagar	3,791	360,300	404,000
Bhaunagar	2,860	441,500	562,000

OTHER RAJPUT STATES OF NORTHERN INDIA.

Kashmir and Jammu	80,900	3,326,400	1,510,000
Orchha	2,080	337,700	400,000
Panna	2,492	202,600	296,000
Riwa	13,000	1,513,000	391,000

STATES OF SOUTHERN INDIA.

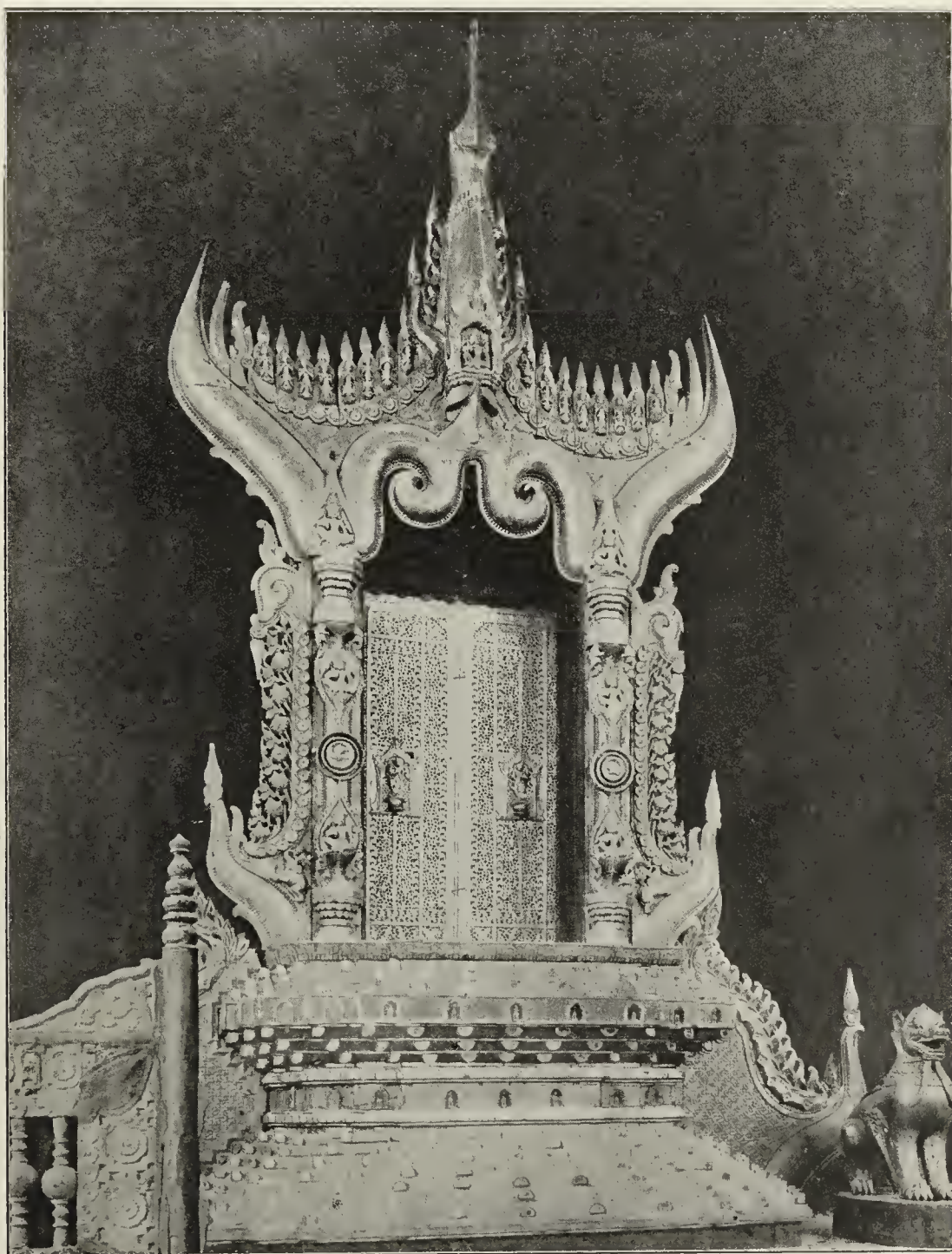
Mysore	29,444	5,872,000	2,346,000
Travancore	7,600	3,899,000	1,216,000
Cochin	1,362	968,000	490,000

STATES OF EASTERN INDIA.

Cooch Behar	1,307	326,000	238,000
Hill Tipperah	4,086	308,000	181,000
Manipur	8,456	386,781	49,800

Mohammedan States

The most important of the Mohammedan States is Hyderabad, the dominion of the Nizam, which occupies the principal portion of the Deccan. Much of this territory is, however, covered with jungle—the home of tigers, panthers, leopards, elephants, and the peculiar grey-coated and short-horned *Nilgai*. Besides being the chief Feudatory State it is the principal Mohammedan State in India, and His Highness the Nizam is now supreme as a ruler of the followers of Islam. The wooded lands and cultivated fields of Hyderabad afford welcome relief after the sandy wastes of Northern Rajputana, and the agricultural activity is attested by the laden elephants, camels, and bullock-carts, which



KING'S THRONE IN THE ROYAL PALACE, MANDALAY

are continually seen traversing this State in all directions.

The moment Hyderabad, the capital, is entered, the predominance of the Mohammedan religion becomes apparent.* The minarets of numerous mosques rise above the mixed collection of shrines, native houses, and truly Oriental bazaars. In the shops are displayed, besides the silks and stuffs of bright yellow—which is the Nizam's colour—the familiar red fez and garments ornamented with the Crescent and the Star. Hyderabad, which has a population of about 400,000, is situated within a circle of low verdure-clad hills, and divided from the walled native city by the River Musa, which is spanned by a fine bridge, are the few European bungalows.

The political relations of this state are direct with the Supreme Government of India, and the military forces maintained consist of 806 Imperial Service Troops and 17,300 Irregulars.

About the Khanate of Kelat, and other chieftainships subordinate to this Baluch state, all of which are subject to great heat on the plains during the summer, and excessive cold in the highlands during the winter, little can be said, for beyond the political importance of the fortress of Quetta, which commands the Bolan Pass, and is situated in the small Baluchistan district of the North-west Frontier Province, there is little of special interest in this frontier state. The portion known as **BRITISH BALUCHISTAN** was partly acquired from Afghanistan by the Treaty of Gandamak, and partly from the Khan of Kelat. The political relations of this state are conducted with the Government of India through the Agent for Baluchistan. The troops maintained number about 700. In this portion of India is also the small Mohammedan State of Khairpur, which was permitted to retain its independence after the conquest of Sind. Its political relations are with the Government of the Bombay Presidency, and about 400 troops are maintained.

The States of Bhawalpur and Bhopal, the former in the north, the latter in the south of Rajputana, are also important Mohammedan principalities. The political relations of the Nawal of Bhawalpur are direct with the Government of the Punjab. The troops maintained number 604 Imperial Service and about 300 Irregulars. Bhopal has its political

relations with the Supreme Government of India through the Agent for Central India.

The tiny State of Rampur, situated in the centre of the United Provinces, maintains some 315 Imperial Service Troops and over 1,000 Irregulars. Its political relations are direct with the Government of the United Provinces. Junagarh and Palanpur are both in direct political relations with the Government of the Bombay Presidency, and maintain 99 and 600 Imperial Service Troops, respectively.

Mahratta States

One of the most important of the Mahratta States is Baroda, the jurisdiction of which extends over Guzerat, on the coast, north of Bombay. The population exceeds 2,200,000, and the rich territory of the Gaekwar brings in a revenue averaging well over £1,000,000 a year. The political relations of this State are direct with the Government of India, and the troops maintained number 8,000 in all. Gwalior, another important Central Indian State, is famous for its rock fortress, which stands on a massive sandstone cliff with almost perpendicular sides, and commands the capital, Gwalior City. Built over twelve centuries ago, this impregnable looking castle has withstood many long sieges and much fierce storming. In the giant rock upon which the ramparts stand, numerous caves were excavated during the thirteenth century by religious hermits; and in one of these is still to be seen a rudely carved stone figure over 50 ft. in height. The political relations of this Mahratta State are conducted through the Agent for Central India, and the Imperial Service Troops number 4,370, in addition to nearly 6,000 Irregulars. The Maharajah, who is an excellent example of the loyal Indian Ruler, won considerable military distinction in the China Expedition.

Indore, the other Mahratta State included politically in the "Central Indian Agency," is famous for its *Malwa* opium. There is an *Imperial Opium Agency* in Indore, the capital, where the drug is weighed, and a charge made on every box, which consists of 200 balls. The Maharajah of Indore, in common with the rulers of other opium-growing states, imposes an additional duty.

* Politically—as over half the population of this State are really Hindus.



Photo, Harold J. Shepstone

THE TEMPLE OF A PAGAN KING, MANDALAY

This State maintains 200 Imperial Service Troops and over 1,000 Irregulars. Kolhapur, in the southern portion of the Bombay Presidency, maintains about 700 troops of various kinds and has its political relations with the Government of the Province in which it is situated.

Sikh and Jât States

The chief of the Sikh States is Patiala which lies in the south-eastern portion of the Punjab. In common with all the Sikh States, its political relations are with the Government of the Punjab. It is from this portion of India that some of the best fighting material of the Indian Army is drawn, and this little State maintains 1,800 Imperial Service Troops and about 1,600 Irregulars. The fine and loyal character of the Sikhs has often been asserted by both deeds and words. The little State of Jind supports 800 Imperial Service Troops and 860 Irregulars; Kapurthala maintains 300 Imperial Service Troops and 255 Irregulars, and Nabla 500 for Imperial Service and 260 Irregulars. All these States are the survival of Sikh conquests, and have political relations direct with the Government of the Punjab.

The two Jât States, situated in the vicinity of Delhi, consist of territory originally obtained from the Moguls by the Jâts, who are a vigorous race of Northern India and are believed to be of Scythian origin; they profess the Sikh religion. Bhartpur maintains just over 1,000 Imperial Service Troops and 2,000 Irregulars; and Dholpur about 600 Imperial Service Troops and 700 Irregulars. Both are in political relationship with the Agent for Rajputana.

Rajput States of Rajputana

Of the many States in Rajputana the 12,691 square miles of territory forming the dominion of His Highness the Maharajah of Udaipur (Mewar) comprises the chief of the Rajput States, which occupy an enormous area in the heart of India. Udaipur, which is hilly and well-wooded, is a decided contrast to the desert tracts of Northern Rajputana. In the open jungles and among the brown rugged hills excellent tiger and panther shooting may be obtained, and the rural

portions of the State offer good opportunities for studying the crude methods of agriculture still practised by the natives of this portion of India. It is, however, the capital, with its curious mixture of the ancient East and the modern West, and its enchanting lake-side palace, like a scene from the "Arabian Nights," which appeal most to the artistic sense and compel a closer acquaintance. Not only is it one of the most picturesque cities of India, but it reflects more truthfully the life of the State.

The tillers of the soil and the hewers of wood are mostly the aboriginal tribes, principally Bhils, for the Rajputs are ill-suited to agricultural labour. The dignified chiefs, resplendent in silks and jewels, dislike the exploitation of their estates, preferring rather to reserve the largest portions of them for the pleasures of the chase. They retain the martial characteristics of their forefathers, who, like Pertab Singh, clad in chain armour and armed with heavy scimitar, rode with bloody spur on many a field of battle. Now that war is no longer a frequent occurrence they confine their activities in the field to the hunting of tigers and panthers; and the many chiefs who owe allegiance to the Maharajah of Udaipur have each his own estates, but are frequently in attendance at the court of their feudal lord.

The first glimpse of Udaipur, the capital, gives a foretaste of the beauties to come—a blaze of white facing a broad sheet of placid water, set in a background of green foliage and framed with the blue line of distant hills. When the railway station—and it is curious to step from the train into the howdar of a richly-caparisoned elephant—has been left some distance back on the dusty, cactus-hedged road, and the burial place of the Mewar Kings, with its many tombs dating from all ages, has been passed, the city of Udaipur comes clearly into view. White walls encircle it, the Pichola Lake faces it, but the palace crowns it.

This is not the work of one Maharajah but that of successive generations, who have added to the size of this now enormous palace which reflects its beauties in the depths of the island-dotted lake. The gardens are filled with moist green foliage and flowers. Doves flutter among the trees which extend their leafy branches over the still waters. In Udaipur, as in the capitals of several



THE CITY OF 450 PAGODAS

Each shrine contains " words of wisdom " of the Buddhist faith

Photo, Underwood

other native states, there is no proper European cantonment. The white inhabitants being few in number, and the city entirely Oriental, it is aglow with the bright colours and dresses of the East ; but there is in this quiet Indian town, which still possesses much that is ancient, an almost unobservable leaven of western ways, not only in the customs of the people and in the conduct of the State, but also in the curl of smoke which floats over the distant railway track, and the sunlight's gleam on the telegraph wires.*

The other important States of Rajputana, which is divided into nineteen principalities, are Jaipur and Jodpur, both of which include large tracts of populous country. The headquarters of the Political Agency, which has its officers next the rulers of each State, is at Ajmere ; the political relations of all the Rajput States are with the Government of India through the Agent for Rajputana. Udaipur maintains 2,500 Imperial Service Troops and 3,500 Irregulars ; Jaipur, 722 Imperial Service Troops and no fewer than 10,000 Irregulars ; Jodpur, 1,210 for Imperial Service and 3,200 Irregulars ; Alwar, 1,600 Imperial Service Troops and 800 Irregulars ; Bikanir 500 Imperial Service Troops and 900 Irregulars ; and Kotah, 800 Imperial Service Troops and 6,000 Irregulars. An excellent example of these troops is the Camel Corps belonging to the Maharajah of Bikanir, a loyal and able ruler whose State, in the north of Rajputana, is situated in the vast desert of Marwar—the "Land of Death"—and has an area of about 23,311 square miles.† Although situated in the midst of an almost waterless country Bikanir is by no means backward, in fact it possesses several modern innovations, which have not yet made their appearance in some of the large and better endowed native States. Much of Bikanir's prosperity is, however, due to the energy of its enlightened Maharajah, who not only raised the splendid Camel Corps some hundreds strong, which did such valuable service for the Empire in Somaliland, but also led his troops in the China Expedition, and played an important part in the Great European War (*q.v.*).

Rajput States of Kathiawar

Lying to the west of Rajputana, and occupying the Kathiawar Peninsula, are another group of Rajput States, all of which are in political relationship with the Government of the Bombay Presidency. The most important of these States are Cutch and Idar. The former maintains no fewer than 1,000 Imperial Service Troops and 4,000 Irregulars, notwithstanding the fact that the territory and population are comparatively small. Of the other three States, Gondal maintains only 203 Irregulars ; Nawangar 145 for Imperial Service and 200 Irregulars ; and Bhaunagar 256 Imperials and 340 Irregulars.

Situated to the eastward of Rajputana, in the hilly country dividing the Indo-Gangetic plains of Northern India from the Peninsular Plateau of the south, are many small Rajput States, or petty chiefships, who have maintained their semi-independence during the British Raj. The only ones of any importance are Orcha and Panna, whose ruling chiefs are of the Bughel Clan. Their political relations are with the Agent for Central India. Orchha maintains a heterogeneous military force about 1,350 strong ; and Panna a small corps of 190 men. Riwa, another Rajput State of Central India, has just over 1,700 troops.

The frontier State of Kashmir, situated at the western angle of the Himalayas, is not only of great political importance, but is also of wide extent and has considerable resources. The revenue is approximately £1,500,000 a year. A very large portion of this territory is occupied by rugged mountains, but in the famous valley of Kashmir the land is closely cultivated, the climate is temperate and the scenery, in parts, almost unequalled in the whole of India. Kashmir is famous for its beautiful shawls, made of *pashmina*, or the fine wool of the "shawl-goat," which is a native of the Himalayan highlands. These found great favour with Her Majesty Queen Victoria, whose custom it was to present a fine specimen of this work to brides and distinguished ladies of her Court. Three pairs of shawls, many of which range in value from £100 to £500, 25 lb. of wool and one horse, still constitute Kashmir's direct tribute

* There is also a hospital.

† Jesulmere is another desert State in Rajputana.



A STREET IN ADEN

Photo, Underwood

to the British Crown. The political relations of this frontier State are direct with the Government of India; and no fewer than 3,370 Imperial Service Troops, in addition to an almost equal number of Irregulars, are maintained. During 1891-2 the Imperial Kashmir Contingent was engaged in Chitral.

States of Southern India

The largest and most important State, south of the dominions of the Nizam of Hyderabad, is Mysore, the scene of the exploits of Haidar Ali, and his son Tipu Sultan, who died in the gallant defence of Seringapatam, the old capital, against the British force in 1799. His remains lie buried in the magnificent mausoleum erected by himself for his father. Mysore is a large State, having a revenue of over 2 millions sterling a year, and its political relations are direct with the Supreme Government of India. It is situated in Southern India, where the sun retains its tropical heat nearly all the year round. The territory is extensively covered with dense jungles, festooned with creepers, gay with flowers, and alive with birds of brilliant plumage, flying amid the leafy canopy, and monkeys swinging from tree to tree. The only towns of importance are Mysore, the new capital, which, although more open than many Indian towns and very prettily laid out, has few features of interest (its climate is excessively hot and damp), and Bangalore, which, owing to its elevated position, enjoys a mild climate compared with the intense damp heat of the surrounding country. It has been an important military station since its capture by Lord Cornwallis in 1791, and there is a considerable European community.* Some few miles from Bangalore are situated the famous Kolar gold-fields. Mysore maintains about 537 Imperial Service Troops and 2,000 Irregulars.

Travancore and Cochin, the only other important states in Southern India, lie in the extreme south-west of the Peninsula. Their political relations are with the Government of Madras. The former maintains a military force numbering 1,543, officered from the British Army; and the latter a heterogeneous corps of 325 all told. Travancore and Cochin have Hindu dynasties claiming Rajput descent. There are a large number of native

Christians in the former State. Mysore is a Hindu principality.

States of Eastern India

This group of States lies in the mountainous country of Bengal and Assam. Cooch Behar, which has its political relations direct with the Government of India, is formed by a tract of country in the extreme north of the Province of Bengal. The inhabitants are principally Hindus and Mohammedans, and the military force consists of 156 all told. Hill Tipperah is attached politically to the Government of Bengal, and its population is principally Hindu. The military force consists of 330 men. Manipur, which lies between Assam and Burma, has no military force worth mentioning and is within the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Assam. Some years ago a revolt occurred in this little State and the Chief Commissioner and several of his officers were murdered. The rulership was, in consequence, transferred to another branch of the family. Both Hill Tipperah and Manipur are inhabited by people of more or less Tibeto-Burman stock.

An important state is Sikkim, situated on the Tibetan frontier between Nepal and Bhutan. It has an area of about 2,830 square miles, with a population of approximately 90,000, mostly composed of Buddhists and Hindus.

Feudatory India

It will have been seen that "Feudatory India" is composed of a large number of semi-independent States of varying size and importance, all of which are, however, collected politically into about seventeen groups on a modified feudal system, in many cases the smaller being subject to the larger and the larger to the Supreme Government of British India. Apart from the heterogeneous chieftanships in Burma, which number about sixty and cannot really be considered as independent states owing to the varied nature of their resources for semi-independent government, there are in all 621 native Indian States, but by far the largest portion of these are little more than country domains. In addition there are Nepal, and Bhutan,

* British troops are stationed here.



Photo by kind permission of the Patiala Government

A GARDEN IN THE NATIVE STATE OF PATIALA

which are countries in themselves. Although these two frontier States lie directly within the Anglo-Indian sphere of influence, and can have no political relations with any foreign power, they manage their internal affairs without direct supervision by the Government of India.

As will have been seen the native princes of India maintain their own military forces, which are independent of the Indian Army. These may be divided into two parts, as far as utility in modern war is concerned. Richly-clad retainers armed with the weapons of the past form one portion, which is intended for state occasions and police work ; but many of the princes maintain at the expense of their state revenues carefully trained regiments with modern equipment for service in the field with the Imperial Indian Army. These are known as "Imperial Service Troops," and on several occasions contingents from these have fought in foreign lands for the King-Emperor.

The Native States occupy two-fifths of the total area of the Indian Empire. The more important of these principalities are not under the direct control of British officials. They are ruled by their own chiefs, councils and ministers, but are *advised* in matters of internal government by an Agent of the Viceroy and *controlled* in the following matters :—

- (1) Foreign and inter-State relations.
- (2) The making of War and Peace.
- (3) The Military Forces they maintain and the employment of these forces.
- (4) In the event of misrule the Chief can be dethroned or suspended.
- (5) Matters of Imperial Trade, Railways, Communications and other services affecting the whole of India.
- (6) The people of the Native States are not subject to the laws of British India.
- (7) The territory of the Native States does not come under the jurisdiction of the Indian or Provincial Parliaments.
- (8) Neither the Indian High Courts nor Provincial Courts have jurisdiction in the Native States.

Many of these States are not as old as the British Raj. One such State was created out of the family domains of the Maharajah of Benares in 1910. Those Chiefs who are

entitled to a salute of eleven guns are also given the title of "Highness."

Social Systems, Religions and Castes

The social system of India is mainly patriarchal, and is so mixed with religion and caste prejudice that it is very difficult to separate one from the other. The principal religions of the Empire are Brahminism, or Hinduism, Buddhism, and Mohammedanism, to which may be added Zoroastrianism and Jainism. In India itself it may be commonly assumed that all those who are not Mohammedans are Hindus, and in saying that one means the larger portion of the total population. Hinduism is not only a religion but is also the ruling power in a very intricate system of society, every action of life is fettered with caste prejudice and ritual under the ascendancy of Brahmin. The lower classes of the population, numbering probably about 70,000,000, live a life of social degradation and are treated by all high or higher caste Hindus as being unapproachably low in the social sphere. Although the border line is not well defined, each caste has its own prejudices and caste laws, relating to food, marriage and ritual, and is severely isolated from every other. A man is born into a caste and he can never leave it. He can only eat, marry and worship within his own caste, and in fact his food must not have been cooked or touched by anyone outside the caste. Each caste has its own government and is ruled by a council or committee called "*paucháyot*," who have absolute powers. The Brahmins, who are the hereditary priests (although in the earliest Sanskrit writings, the "*Vedas*," they are not recognised as hereditary) are the head of all the castes, and under them, one above the other, are ranged over 2,000 other castes. Self-esteem seems to have been the leading reason for caste growth and the artificial social system which is part of it.

Hindus, who number nearly 180,000,000, are really a heterogeneous association of races speaking about fourteen different languages and differing in colour, general appearance, dress and ceremonial. As a religion Brahminism is very tolerant and thus it has drawn into its fold many more or less important

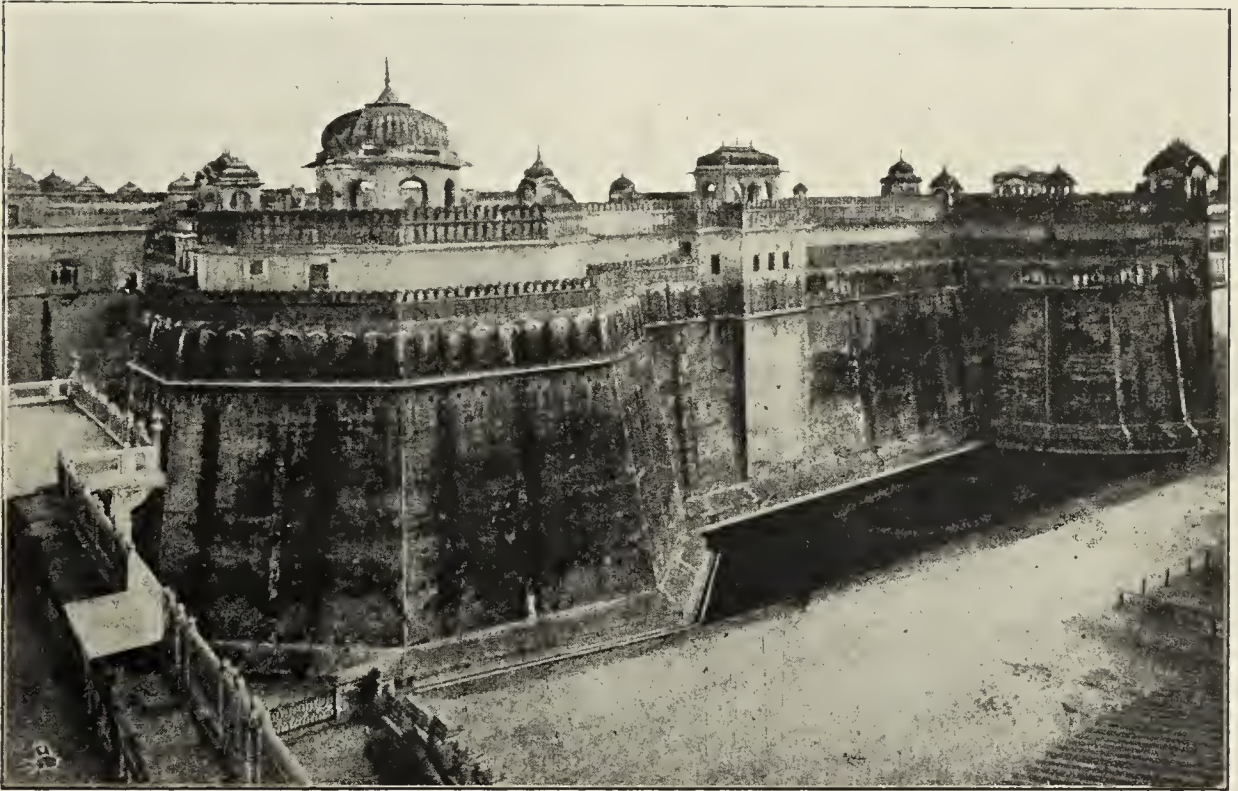


Photo by kind permission of the Patiala Government

THE OLD FORT, PATIALA

sects, such as the Sikhs, the inhabitants of a portion of the Punjab who number about 3,000,000.

Many of the caste principles and scruples, especially as regards food and general intercourse, are giving way to the broader social system inculcated by residence and education in the west, but as regards marriage the prejudices remain and are in some ways more narrow than ever, although there is a tendency amongst the higher castes to break away from the general system.

The three principal divinities amongst the other thousands recognised by the Hindu faith are *Brahma*, the creator, *Siva*, the lord of birth and death, and *Vishnu*, who may be described as the preserving spirit of mankind. The chief of the other divinities is the mythic consort of Siva, known as "Kali, the mother," or the "Great Mother." She is propitiated with cruel sacrifices, and her cult, which is in some cases of an occult nature, was that professed by the Thuggs, or stranglers, who were so much dreaded in India centuries ago. A Hindu of position, whilst venerating all the gods of his religion, connects himself

specifically with one of these cults and marks his forehead with paint to show his allegiance. The marks are drawn horizontally for Siva, vertically for Vishnu, and curved for Kali.

Hindus worship the cow, and the River Ganges is venerated to such an extent that pilgrims carry bottles of its water about with them.

Asceticism is practised in all ranks of Hindu life, and is of a rigid and rigorous disciplinary nature, comprising self-denial, deep thought and concentration, mortification of the flesh and other actions tending to increase the will power of the subject, at the expense, in most cases, of the bodily health. Hindus, to a certain extent, believe in the transmigration of souls.

The Mohammedans, who number about 65,000,000, are a very closely-knit section of the people of India, and their religion is definite and solid. Originally the religion entered the country from Central Asia and the West, and with one or two exceptions, has its stronghold in the North and North-western portions of the Empire. The

Mohammedans by dress and general appearance, such as the wearing of beards, are easily distinguished from the Hindus, and they have in general adopted the principle of Scriptural names.

The Parsis, who only number about 500,000 or thereabouts, are an industrious commercial sect found in strength in Bombay. The religion is commonly known as Zoroastrianism and its practical side is a veneration of the natural elements, fire in particular.

Buddhism is the ruling cult in North-east India, Tibet, Ceylon and Burma, and has, in the Indian Empire, a following of about 15,000,000 to 20,000,000 persons. Its founder, Gautama, or "Buddha," lived about five centuries before Christ, and the teachings of the cult may be termed a collection of moral laws and principles, moral purity and discipline, and kindness to all living things.

Jainism is an ancient cult which is professed by about 1,500,000 persons, and is a mixture of Hinduism and Buddhism. Both Buddhists and Jains accept the doctrine of the transmigration of souls.

HINDU AND MOSLEM DIFFERENCES.

Although the trouble between Hindus and Mohammedans in India had its origin far back in history, when, under the Mogul Emperors, thousands of Hindus were compelled to adopt the Islamic faith at the point of the sword, so acute is the feeling which still exists between these two sects that scarcely a week passes without a fatal conflict in some portion of India.

The descendants of the original "converts" to Islam now form separate castes. Some of these observe Hindu and others Moslem customs. During quite recent years the leaders of the Hindu Movement have, by propaganda and eloquence, been engaged in re-converting many of those who had left their old faith. This is known as the *Shuddi* movement and it has accentuated the centuries old trouble.

There is, in India, the anomaly of two races with strong religious beliefs living side by side with each other, the one regarding the cow as a sacred animal and the other



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THE MOTI BAGH PALACE, PATIALA

This large Native State is representative of Feudatory India

with the central tenet of its religious belief demanding the sacrifice of this same animal. Many of the most fierce riots in India have occurred during what is known as the *Bakri-Id*, when the Mohammedans lead a decorated cow to a place of sacrifice. Usually the route chosen is away from the Hindu quarter of the city, but if a rumour should be started that the procession will approach the Hindu area, or provocation either real or imaginary be given in some other way,

a fanatical fight is almost certain to take place.

These religious conflicts not only form an ever-present problem to the local British Administrator and police official, but also to the Central Government, because of the impossibility of reconciling these two powerful elements in the vast population of British India for general political changes and reforms. (See also under *Defence*, *Finance*, *Commerce*, *Far and Middle East*, etc.).



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